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The New York City Mayoralty

Last week the General Fusion Committee of One Hundred and Ten, composed of representative Democrats, Republicans, and Progressives, nominated John Purroy Mitchel as the Fusion candidate for Mayor of New York City. It is needless to say that, while Democrats were on the Committee, it contained no representatives of Tammany Hall, although that institution is sometimes called the "regular organization" of the Democrats of the metropolis. As the Fusion Committee was created to oppose and defeat the Tammany ticket, under the general conviction that Tammany is responsible for most of the political corruption and misrule in the metropolis, Tammany Democrats did not participate in its deliberations. Mr. Mitchel is, however, a National Democrat of such good standing that he was recently appointed Collector of the Port of New York by President Wilson. The contest for the Mayoralty nomination narrowed itself down to three possibilities—Mr. Mitchel, Mr. George McAneny, now President of the Borough of Manhattan, and Mr. Charles S. Whitman, now District Attorney of New York County. All three men, together with William A. Prendergast, now Comptroller of the city, have been conspicuous in the reforms which have been carried out in New York City during the last four years. Mr. Whitman and Mr. Prendergast were renominated for their present offices, while Mr. McAneny was named for President of the Board of Aldermen, and Mr. Marcus M. Marks, a well-known manufacturer, who has been prominent in many movements of social and industrial reform, was selected to take Mr. McAneny's place as President of the Borough of Manhattan. The four Borough Presidents, the President of the Board of Aldermen, and the Comptroller are officers of great importance because, with the Mayor, they form the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, which controls and directs all the expenditure of the city's budget. The Fusion Committee also adopted an excellent, definite platform which provides for a new home rule charter; reorganization of the police; economy and efficiency in city government to be obtained by such measures as appointment to office for merit only, and the establishment of a central purchasing bureau for all city supplies; reform in taxation; the effective control of all public utilities; and some definite municipal activities for the promotion of social justice and welfare. It is clearly the most definite, simple, human, and sensible platform that has ever been adopted in a municipal nominating convention in the city of New York.

Mr. Mitchel's Personality and Qualifications

Mr. Mitchel is by birth and training a Democrat, and members of his family have been prominent in Tammany Hall; but in his political career he has fought Tammany and Tammany methods unsparingly when they conflicted with his views of honest government—which, it may frankly be said, has been pretty often. He first came into political prominence as Commissioner of Accounts, and his investigations, his exposures of inefficiency and corruption, and his own administrative ability attracted the attention of the entire city. He was next elected President of the Board of Aldermen, and there his fearlessness and high standards gave him an unusual influence. As a member of the Board of Estimate, in which he sat as President of the Board of Aldermen, he showed sagacity, persistence, and active loyalty to the interests of the city as opposed to mere political interests. His recent appointment as Collector of the Port of New York to succeed Mr. Loeb is regarded not only in this city but throughout the country as a wise recognition of an able and upright public servant. The most severe criticism that we have happened to hear of him is that he has "Socialistic tendencies." If by this is meant that he is more interested

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in the social, family, and individual life of the people of the city than he is in the volume of bank deposits or the statistics of manufacturers, we share those tendencies and naturally applaud them. In a word, he is a man of political training and experience who has a clear head, a warm heart, and an honest conscience; a good combination of qualities—especially when a man is willing to fight to maintain them—for the Mayor of a great city. It should be added that Mr. Mitchel has some Irish fighting blood in his veins. There is, of course, disappointment among the friends of Mr. Whitman and Mr. McAneny that they were not nominated. Both of them have remarkable achievements to their credit in the field of good government. Both of them, we hope, will continue to work in that field, and will receive further recognition from the public in the future. But it should be remembered that in nominating a candidate for Mayor of New York City expediency must be taken into consideration as well as idealism. New York is a Democratic city by a very large majority, and there was in the minds of many good citizens a question whether Mr. Whitman, a lifelong Republican, could carry this Democratic vote. It is no reflection on Mr. Mitchel to say that Mr. McAneny represents the intellectual men of the city, the men who think out the philosophy of political problems as well as practical methods of solving them. Mr. Mitchel, on the other hand, is more definitely a representative of the people, and is probably capable of commanding a larger popular vote than either of his two competitors. Under all these conditions we think the Committee's decision in his favor was a wise one.

The End of the Paterson Strike

The end of the protracted conflict between silk manufacturers and operatives in Paterson, New Jersey, came last week when the majority of the latter, through sheer pressure of poverty, were forced to return to work. About 2,500 strikers left the city rather than accept defeat, it is reported, and the strike leaders say that nearly 2,000 more have been blacklisted by the mill men and will never be reinstated. The remainder of the 25,000 operatives who, under the leadership of the Industrial Workers of the World, for the last five months have waged one of the most spectacular labor wars on record, are back in their former positions under practically the same conditions against which they rebelled in February. The terms of peace were arranged between shop committees and individual employers without the sanction of the I. W. W. leaders who had all along insisted upon a general settlement or none at all. Apparently the collapse of the strike was due to this renunciation of the I. W. W. principle of solidarity. In a speech admitting defeat, Miss Elizabeth Gurley Flynn, "the Jeanne d'Arc of the I. W. W.," said: "We had the strike won, when there were breaks in the ranks. These breaks received such wide publicity that aid stopped coming in." This slackening of the generosity of strike sympathizers was the beginning of the end. Sinews of war had been coming in on an average of $2,000 a week. Except for a few minor concessions in some mills the strikers made no material gains. The feeling of class consciousness which the shoulder-to-shoulder fight engendered in them may be an important factor in future disputes, however. The strikers lost in wages nearly $5,500,000; the manufacturers are out probably as much. Some of them were driven to other cities and others were forced out of business entirely. Paterson as a whole suffered severely. Landlords were especially heavy losers. It is reported that 1,200 tenants paid no rent during periods of from two to five months. Many small tradesmen went into bankruptcy. If newspaper accounts are true, the city paid about $10,000 for special police to aid the regular force, which averaged sixteen hours a day on duty throughout the disturbance. Arrests to the number of 1,473 were made in connection with the strike, and five deaths were directly due to it. Although the failure of the strikers to win an eight-hour day and a twenty-five per cent wage increase is a severe blow to the I. W. W., that body gained many local converts. The I. W. W. has offered to lead another strike six months hence if the rank and file are willing. If such an event takes place, no efforts should be spared to prevent a repetition of the exhausting struggle just ended. If the local authorities cannot secure the arbitration of the issues involved, State or Federal intervention would seem to be demanded.

Personal Purity and the Chicago Schools

The Chicago Board of Education, acting on the recommendation of the present Superintendent of Schools, Mrs. Ella Flagg Young, has taken an important step

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forward in the fight for higher standards of personal purity." This recommendation, adopted by a vote in the Board of 11 to 2, reads, in its essential part, as follows:

> The Superintendent recommends that effective speakers on personal purity who use simple yet scientifically correct language be secured to give in the fall term of 1913 a course of three lectures on this subject in each of the twenty-one high schools, the pupils to be grouped in reasonable numbers, boys and girls separate; provided that all pupils who bring notes from their parents asking to have them excused shall be excused; that after December, 1913, the lectures be limited to first year classes in physiology and hygiene or in biology; that kindergartners, teachers in the lower grades, and nurses be requested to endeavor to guard the young children from practices taught by the unchaste.

The Committee on Finance, in submitting this report of the Superintendent to the Board of Education, embodied in it the following paragraph:

> Your Committee further recommends that if, as a result of the successful teaching of this subject in the high schools, it be deemed advisable to extend the work to the upper grades of the elementary schools, the Superintendent be instructed to prepare a plan for the carrying of the work into the elementary schools, this plan to be submitted for approval to the Committee on School Management.

According to the daily press this action of the Chicago Board of Education was bitterly resented by hundreds of parents. This, however, was not the case. The only protests received came from Roman Catholic priests and from certain Christian Scientists. The priests objected on the ground that personal purity should be taught in the home, and, furthermore, that these lectures savored of paternalism. Both of these objections must have been readily understood even by those who overruled them. Theoretically we agree with the Catholic Church in its dictum that personal purity should be taught in the home. Unfortunately, however, a condition and not a theory confronted the Chicago Board of Education. The fact must be faced that in a large majority of families personal purity or sex hygiene is either inadequately handled or utterly ignored. At least until a generation of parents arrives willing to face its responsibility in this all-important matter, we believe that such a system of lectures as that adopted by the Chicago Board of Education is a vital necessity. The objection on the ground of paternalism is one based on an honest difference as to the function of State education. If State education means the teaching of the three R's, and the shouldering of all other matters upon the church and the home, the priests were right. If, as The Outlook believes, the chief function of State education is the upbuilding of a better citizenship and a higher sense of social responsibility, the balance then swings in favor of the Chicago educators. The objection raised by certain Christian Scientists is less comprehensible. They based their protest on the plea that teaching the facts in regard to sex instills fear in the minds of children. We confess we cannot follow the thread of this thought. Why it should instill fear in the minds of children to teach them that to each and every one is granted the power of life-giving, and that their highest duty is so to think and so to live that this power may be transmitted to their descendants unimpaired by disease either of mind or body, we have not the slightest idea. Rather, to our minds, not only "fear" but still more tangible danger lurks in the ignorance—which seldom bears the remotest resemblance to innocence—to which so many children are condemned. The greatest difficulty before the Chicago Board of Education will lie in the selection of suitable lecturers. We wish we might hope that these men and women will be selected under the competent supervision of such an idealist as Mrs. Young. It is reported, however, that she is to resign her position as Superintendent of the Public School System of Chicago, a position which she has filled with eminent distinction since August, 1909. An effort, which, needless to add, has the hearty sympathy of The Outlook, is being made to convince her that she must reconsider her decision.

The Mexican Puzzle

To all the proposed solutions of the problem as to this country's duty about Mexico objections are raised, and last week the Administration at Washington seemed still puzzled and undecided. President Wilson, unless greatly misrepresented by the press, is positively and equally opposed to recognition of Huerta and to anything that would make armed intervention likely; his hope seems to be in some form of mediation on our part as between the conflicting elements in Mexico; but if he has any workable plan for this, he has not made it public. Henry Lane Wilson, still our Ambassador to Mexico, but now in Washington, holds views which

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are not apparently acceptable to the Administration, but which made a distinctly strong impression as presented by him before the Senate's Committee on Foreign Relations. His recommendations include: the immediate recognition of Huerta on his undertaking to co-operate in the pacification of the country and in assuring a fair election in October; the adjustment to the satisfaction of the United States of certain international claims between the two countries; and the prompt settlement, through a commission, of the pecuniary claims of American citizens and others. In brief, Mr. Wilson, the Ambassador, would work through Huerta; Mr. Wilson, the President, would not. In particular, Ambassador Wilson believes that a fair election could be assured if the United States would insist as one of the conditions for recognizing the Huerta Government that the present Minister of the Interior be displaced and a man who believes in strict constitutional government be named in his stead. He lays great stress upon the evil financial and economic situation of Mexico. His idea is that if Huerta is recognized Mexican finance can be put on a sound footing, and that Huerta could then restore order and help in establishing a moderate government. But would Huerta do this? And could he do it? The armed opposition in northern Mexico is not to be ignored, and its leaders declare that Huerta's power would fall instantly if belligerency were recognized by the United States and arms allowed to be sent from this country to the insurgents. Ambassador Wilson, on the other hand, declares that the "abyss" over which Huerta is tottering is financial and not military. Meanwhile Felix Diaz, who is on his way to Japan as Mexico's envoy, has announced that he will be a candidate for the Presidency. Under the Constitution of Mexico Huerta is not eligible, but in Spanish-American countries more than once it has been found possible for a "strong man" to ignore or override such Constitutional provisions. The root trouble in Mexico is that there is no Mexican people in the sense in which there is an American people. Long submission to dictatorship under the name of a republic has left the country without right training for self-government. The best that can be hoped is union of the better-disposed leaders in the choice of some fair-minded President who will not subordinate the national welfare to personal ambition.

Central American Courtesy

In the midst of rumors of complications with Mexico and other countries to the south of us, rumors which lose nothing through being retailed by the jingo press, comes word of a graceful act of international courtesy by a country that has not always been eager to exchange amenities with the United States. According to newspaper despatches from Washington, Guatemala has acted upon the suggestion of Secretary Bryan that exchanges of students be made between universities in this country and those in Latin America, and has offered, through her Minister, Joaquin Mendez, five full scholarships in the National University at Guatemala City, to be filled by young men and women from the United States. The offer was promptly accepted by Mr. Bryan. The details of the arrangement with Guatemala have not yet been made public, but it is surmised that the Secretary of State will lay the matter before the heads of colleges and universities in this country, and that the courtesy of the little Central American republic will be reciprocated. It remains to be seen whether more eagerness to win these scholarships will be shown by the youth of this country than has been aroused by the opportunities afforded by the Rhodes Oxford Scholarships. At any rate, the benefits of a year's study under a Latin-American faculty should not be underestimated. The National University of Guatemala is the oldest university in Central America, and numbers among its teaching force men of more than local reputation. Such an exchange of favors with Guatemala and possibly with other of the republics to the south of us as Mr. Bryan's suggestion embraces is fraught with pleasant possibilities. It might well pave the way to closer trade relations with the Central American countries, and cement between the Anglo-Saxon and the Latin-American a friendship that would upset the predictions of the skeptics who declare that the only way for the United States to get along with her weaker neighbors is to swallow them.

Educational Relations Between North and South America

The recent address at Harvard of Dr. Rómulo Naón, the Argentine Minister at Washington, on "Higher Education in the Argentine Republic," pointed out what to many persons were unknown facts. The first fact was that the University

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of Córdoba in Argentina was founded in 1613, twenty-three years before the founding of Harvard. The second fact was that the Argentine educational system is centered about three universities—those of Buenos Aires, Córdoba, and La Plata. These universities, the Minister said, have produced most of the political, scientific, and commercial leaders of the country, and are helping to settle the agricultural and transportation problems, which are, we may add, just now of a very pressing nature. The Harvard students were surprised men when Dr. Naón told them that the University of Buenos Aires had seventy-five hundred students, or considerably more than Harvard. The Minister declared that the universities in his country have also been the most prominent factors in studying the geographical and other needs of the whole South American continent and in effecting its economic organization. It is worth while, we think, to point out the value to any university in North or South America of this kind of a lecture by one who represents a civilization thousands of miles away. It has been well said that if the two Americas are drawn close together, the means for that drawing together must be social rather than political. And among all the methods of society for the world's betterment nothing can take the place of education as represented by our universities. An eminent Argentinian once remarked: "If you people in North America want to influence us, send Dr. Eliot down here to deliver three lectures in our three principal countries, Argentina, Brazil, Chile. That would do us more good, and would do you more good, than anything you could mention." It is presumable that this is the exact truth, and that if we had a professorial exchange between the most prominent universities of North and South America a benefit would result which no one could measure. We are glad to say that there is already something of a student movement—that is, so far as South America is concerned. It is not generally realized that there are about fifteen hundred Latin-Americans at our technical schools, colleges, or universities. Of the universities, the University of Pennsylvania and the Notre Dame University of Indiana seem to get the largest number. They come chiefly for engineering and for technical courses. Perhaps more would come if other colleges and universities would follow the plan of Yale in putting forth pamphlets printed in Spanish and Portuguese describing the advantages of their institutions. It is true, as regards interchange in education between South America and the United States, that our young men do not now go to South America to study. But they may very well one day. When Buenos Aires and Rio de Janeiro can produce such authorities in international law as Señor Drago and Senhor Borbosa, any North American student of that subject might welcome the opportunity of sitting at their feet.

The Mutiny of the Swiss Guard

A long time ago the Swiss and the Hessians bore a bad name as being the mercenary troops of Europe. One form of foreign service which the Swiss took up was that of defending the Pope at the Vatican, but this was no mercenary service. The Swiss who went to Rome came from Roman Catholic families in certain cantons where the defense of everything Roman Catholic was a hereditary pride. It was a loyal and a loving service given by the young men from the canton of Lucerne, for instance, to defend the person of the Pope. So arose the corps of guards in the Vatican with its mediæval dress, a picturesque sight which no visitor to that palace willingly misses—a more picturesque sight than ever, indeed, because the ancient costumes and customs seem increasingly out of place with modern conditions, and also because the eighty Swiss would be of little use if the Italian Government were really to be reckoned with in armed force. But it seems that even the Swiss Guard is becoming modernized. It has threatened to go on strike, as the lately installed commander of the Guard actually insists on the drill and practice common to the armies of Europe. The guardsmen set forth the conditions on which they are disposed to remain in the Pope's service; otherwise they declare that they are ready to leave. The conditions are:

(1) The dismissal of the commander of the Swiss Guards.
(2) An increase in the number of guards from eighty to a hundred.
(3) The commander and all the officers to be chosen from among the guardsmen.
(4) The abolition of the prohibition against the frequenting of shops by the guardsmen.
(5) A return to the original system of military instruction, with the abolition of bayonet drill and target shooting.
(6) No punishments to be inflicted in connection with the present agitation.

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These conditions have been declined. Yet the force of organized labor is mighty. It has often prevailed. It will often prevail. Will it ultimately prevail in that stronghold of traditional conservatism, the Vatican?

Gaston La Touche

Gaston La Touche has passed away. To many Americans he is but a name; to others he is much more than a name. Indeed, they regard him as one of the leading modern painters. He first created a sensation at the Paris Exhibition of 1889. It was seen that he was a noteworthy draughtsman, and that in his genre work there was a suggestion of the great Spaniard Goya. Of late years, though La Touche's drawing has become more suggestive than exact, his color has steadily improved—as, for instance, in his night effects in the theaters and in his figures painted against gilded furniture. Speaking of the figures, La Touche's nudes were at one time crudely criticised in this country, especially his "Bath," shown by the Carnegie Institute at Pittsburgh. Always a decorative painter, La Touche introduced nudes both for the effect they offered to his backgrounds, which were frequently in the various shades of yellow, and also because flesh is particularly effective when seen against yellow. For much the same reason La Touche was fond of mirrors, being prompted to this by the color quality which all highly reflective surfaces give. If La Touche had a hobby, it was for depicting animals, especially monkeys. He seemed to take up the monkey as a specialty, just as Degas took up the ballet. One naturally associates Degas, Besnard, and La Touche together in speaking of decorative painters. Of the three, as distinguished from one another, Degas may be regarded as a genre artist and Besnard as a purely decorative painter, while La Touche would come somewhere between them. The work of any one of these three artists has long deservedly been a feature of the best exhibitions.

The National Conference of Charities and Correction

The Fortieth Annual Conference of Charities and Correction was held in Seattle, July 5 to July 12. The sessions were opened by a remarkable address by President Frank Tucker, from New York, with social justice as its theme. He declared that the Conference was entering upon a new era of constructive plans for bringing about the various reforms upon which social workers had come to final agreement. He referred to the fact that the meeting of the Conference last year at Cleveland preceded by only a few days the formation of the National Progressive party, and said that it is generally understood that the social justice platform of the new party was largely derived from an admirable paper on the standards of living and industry presented by Owen R. Lovejoy to the Cleveland Conference. Mr. Tucker stated that many social workers had resolved to give the Democratic party another trial, while some had remained with the party that was third in the race, but that the aims and purposes of this important group had been brought to the attention of the country as never before through the Progressive party, which cast some four million votes. The papers presented by the chairmen of the various committees were distinguished for an optimistic note. Among these papers may be especially mentioned for their timeliness that of Graham Taylor, of the Committee on the Distribution and Assimilation of Immigrants; Mr. Robert N. Baldwin, of Missouri, on the Relation of Commercial Organizations to Social Welfare; Father John A. Ryan, of St. Paul, on the Standards of Living and Labor; Dr. Livingston Farrand on Health and Productive Power; Mr. William T. Cross, of Columbia, Missouri, on Public Supervision and Administration; and Mr. John M. Glenn, of New York, on the Church and Social Work.

Burning Questions

The immigration question is a burning one on the Pacific Coast, and the fullest liberty of speech was given from the platform. The question of Oriental immigration, however, hardly came to the front at all, the overwhelming issue apparently being the expected wave of European immigration that will strike the Pacific Coast upon the opening of the Panama Canal. The two views of restricting immigration in the interests of better living and working conditions for the American workman and of continuing the attitude of welcome to America for all immigrants without restriction were duly presented by their respective champions; and, as is usual with this question, it may be reported, in Congressional language, that the "committee came to no conclusion thereon." Father Ryan's

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report on the standards of living and labor was an effort to present plans for reaching through State or through National action the standards which were so clearly set forth at the preceding Conference. Especially interesting was the discussion of the present status of minimum wage legislation by Mrs. Florence Kelley, showing how rapidly the idea is spreading through the Western States and how thoroughly feasible and practical the plan appears to be. One of the most animated discussions of the session was that on the work of the juvenile court. There is a pretty thorough agreement among social workers that the sentimental era for the juvenile court has about passed, and that there is great danger lest the political opportunities for rewards and punishments shall be too greedily grasped by the bosses who still rule many of our cities. One of the most thoughtful papers of the Conference was by Lewis Merrian, Assistant Chief of the Federal Children's Bureau, on the aims and objects of the Bureau. It seemed to be the general opinion that women's suffrage will contribute more and more largely to these problems, as these questions are of special interest to the women voters. It was probably a surprise to many Eastern visitors to note how earnestly the coast cities, with the apparent exception of San Francisco, are attempting to solve the problem of commercialized prostitution and how effectively they have succeeded in suppressing this evil. The Conference accepted with great regret the resignation of Alexander Johnson, long time its Secretary, and thoroughly identified with all the causes of social reform for which the Conference stands. Mr. W. T. Cross, Secretary of the Missouri State Board of Charities and Correction, who has done splendid executive work in his own State, was elected Secretary of the Conference. The other officers elected were Graham Taylor, of Chicago, President; A. J. McKelway, of Washington, D. C., First Vice-President; Mrs. John M. Glenn, of New York, Second Vice-President; and Mr. W. A. Gates, of San Francisco, Third Vice-President. The Conference accepted a hearty invitation to meet at Memphis, Tennessee, next year.

A Wanderer Returns

After an absence of ten years the Davis Tennis Cup is to return to its native land. Given for an international trophy in 1900 by Dwight F. Davis, an American player of note, this cup spent the first three years of its life in America, the next four in the British Isles, four more in Australasia, and then in 1912 again took up its residence on English soil. As readers of The Outlook will remember, in this year's contest seven countries were represented—America, Australia, Canada, South Africa, Germany, France, and Belgium. The finals were between England and America. America was represented in the singles by young Maurice E. McLoughlin, of California, and R. Norris Williams, a Harvard undergraduate, and in the doubles by McLoughlin and Harold H. Hackett. Three tennis veterans, one of whom played on the first team to challenge for the cup, represented the British Isles. McLoughlin, whose brilliant showing in the recent All-England Championship Tournament made him the center of attention, was defeated in his first match in the singles by J. C. Parke, while his teammate defeated Charles P. Dixon. McLoughlin and Harold H. Hackett then won the doubles against Dixon and H. Roper Barrett in five stiff sets by scores of 5—7, 6—1, 2—6, 7—5, 6—4. This gave the American team a lead over their rivals. But one more point was needed for victory, and this McLoughlin secured by defeating Dixon in three straight sets, 8—6, 6—3, 6—2. Immediately after the final stroke had been won Dixon rushed forward and put his arms around the shoulders of his brilliant opponent. McLoughlin received a wonderful ovation from the huge crowd at Wimbledon, where the matches were played, in spite of the natural disappointment at the loss of the cup. Though the victory of McLoughlin had already given the cup to America, Parke and Williams played out their scheduled match, and again the English, or rather Irish, player came off victorious. Williams was beaten 2—6, 7—5, 7—5, 4—6, 2—6. The general comment in the English press has been one of admiration for the skill of the American team and of regret that England should have been beaten on her own soil at a game which she has long justly considered peculiarly her own.

The Man and the Caddie

Every golfer knows the importance of the caddie. Some caddies appear to know it also, in which case they may be classed among the few "necessary evils" attendant upon the royal and ancient game of golf. For our non-golfing readers per-

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haps we should explain that the Scotch word "caddie" (derived from the French word *cadet*, meaning a younger brother) is applied to one who carries the clubs of persons playing at golf. In this country the caddie is usually a boy, sometimes a very young boy, although in Scotland many grown men earn their livelihood on the golf links as caddies. One of the advantages of the adult caddie in Scotland is that he is usually self-respecting and a capable golfer himself; therefore the player desires to deserve and win his respect. The relations between the player and caddie in Scotland are those of captain and mate rather than those of man and boy. An attractive little booklet just issued by the Caddie Service Committee of the Exmoor Country Club, which maintains one of the best golf courses in the vicinity of Chicago, deserves reading by every golfer. The Caddie Committee of the Exmoor Club recognizes the fact that some players vent their irritation at their own shortcomings upon their caddies. We quote from the booklet:

> Golf success depends upon the capacity for the player to "stand the gaff" both of faulty strokes and stiff competition; and "standing the gaff" literally is the ability to smile after a particularly rotten shot rather than to blaspheme, kick the ground, throw down the stick, or abuse the caddie and bemoan conditions.

The author of the booklet goes on to say most pertinently that while players are constantly insisting upon efficient caddie service, they too frequently fail to appreciate their own responsibilities to the caddie. "We demand," says this little booklet, "of the caddie attention, alertness, obedience, willingness, courtesy, knowledge of the game, persistence, interest in the game, and skill at following the ball." The Committee of the Exmoor Golf Club thinks that some return should be made for this rather comprehensive demand. "Player conduct," it says, "is safe when it is toward the caddie what it would be toward a son of like age." To those practical men who are sometimes afraid of introducing the fatherhood idea and the brotherhood idea into the ordinary daily relations of business and social life lest they be accused of cant, some golfers would undoubtedly reply that golf comes under the head not of business or social but of religious life. Certainly all true golfers must recognize the wisdom of treating their caddies as human beings—if only for selfish reasons. For, asks the Exmoor Club, "if you are not enough interested in a caddie to want to know his name and something about him, if, during several hours in his company, you deny to him even the slightest show of human companionship that a boy naturally appreciates from a man, how can you expect the caddie, who is a human being, to be interested in your game of golf?" As Hamlet remarked upon a matter of almost equal importance—and in a phrase not inapplicable to the present subject—"Ay, there's the rub!"

Washington as a Park City

We are accustomed to think of Washington as a collection of buildings. We may remember, first of all, the Capitol, then the White House, then the Treasury, etc. It is true that a city is made up of buildings. But it is also true that, if the buildings are to be properly appreciated, they must be accompanied by landscape architecture. It is just as true that, if a city as a whole is to be appreciated, it must be accompanied and surrounded by landscape architecture. Take, for instance, Damascus. Who can stand on the hills some miles away from the city, after having come across the sands of Syria, and not be impressed as he looks down upon Damascus, surrounded as it is by its great green *ghuta* or garden half a mile wide, with the waters of the Abana (Barada) and Pharphar split up into a thousand little streams, so that every householder has one flowing through his back yard! It is now proposed to surround Washington with a *ghuta*—indeed, this green strip had already been begun, and well begun. But the recent appropriation by Congress to connect Rock Creek Park with Potomac Park makes us realize that this establishes a continuous parkway from the Capitol around to the National Zoölogical Park. Before long the stranger arriving in Washington, who would rest himself by seeing trees first and buildings second, may start at the Union Station and drive nearly half a mile through the Capitol grounds, then down through the park connection to the Potomac River, and along through Potomac Park to the confluence of Rock Creek with the river, and from here north for several miles to Rock Creek Park. Then comes the missing link; there must be a connection between the Rock Creek Park and the Soldiers' Home Park. With this done, there would be the drive through the Soldiers' Home Park to the next missing link, the residence section between the Soldiers' Home Park and the Union Station. Each of these

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missing links is about a mile and a half long. When the whole ring is complete, Washington will make a stronger claim than ever to recognition as one of the most beautiful cities in the world.

Making a National Capital to Order

Now that the new Federal capital of the Australian Commonwealth has been chosen and named, its further disposition is of interest. Its name is to be Canberra, after the name of the district in New South Wales in which it is situated. The foundation stone of the Capitol was recently laid by Lord Denman, the Governor-General of the Commonwealth. But by far the most interesting and inspiring feature of the Australian Capitol is the fact that the design of the building is the work of Walter Burley Griffin, of Chicago. And not only this; to the credit of this country be it said that Mr. Griffin has been asked to design the capital city itself. His plans cover an area of twenty-five square miles, and provide for an immediate population of seventy-five thousand people. What is specially interesting in the Griffin design is that it is similar to L'Enfant's plan of Washington in having radial thoroughfares—that is to say, the streets radiate from one principal center to other centers, from which in turn thoroughfares radiate to subordinate centers. But it does not, as in Washington, superimpose this radial system upon a "gridiron" system. It brings in the subordinate streets at right angles to the main avenues, thus avoiding the acute angles often found objectionable for building purposes. Mr. Griffin's plan is so complete as to cover street railway systems, steam railway lines, commercial and manufacturing and residential districts. What the name of Pierre de L'Enfant signifies in American city planning the name of Griffin is likely to signify in Australian city planning.

The Morgan Collection

The Board of Estimate of New York City has voted three-quarters of a million dollars to build an addition to the Metropolitan Museum of Art which will provide the place needed for exhibiting the Morgan collection. The Board of Estimate has acted wisely, for such a collection, we believe, has never before been exhibited. It is equally remarkable for variety and for quality. It comprises not only paintings and sculptures but also enamels, bronzes, jewelry, silver, metal-work, ceramics, watches and clocks, glassware, tapestries, furniture, ivories, miniatures. Those who visit the Metropolitan Museum of Art this summer can see some of Mr. Morgan's pictures. Chief among them is Raphael's "Colonna" Madonna, so called from the family in whose possession it once was. This canvas illustrates the stage in Raphael's development when he was passing from the influence of the Umbrian school into the freer liberty of Florence. The other pictures are also of much interest—the Lippo Lippi, for instance, and Velasquez's "Infanta," the two Antony van Dycks, and the noble Rembrandt. There are also fine examples of Hobbema, Turner, Reynolds, Romney, Raeburn, and Lawrence. The pictures and sculptures in the Morgan collection, however, comprise but a small part of the whole, which consists of forty-one hundred objects of art. Of these the enamels are supposed to be, so far as Byzantine work is concerned, the most extraordinary gathering ever brought together. The collection of bronzes is mostly of the Italian Renaissance period. The jewelry is ancient. The collection of silver is largely German of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The department of metal-work includes reliquaries, candlesticks, ewers, and other objects in bronze and iron. The collection of watches and clocks includes about two hundred and sixty pieces. The objects in crystal and amber number about a hundred and forty pieces. The collection of ceramics is important in Italian majolica of the sixteenth century, and in French, Dresden, and Chelsea porcelain of the eighteenth. The collection of glass consists of pieces of Arabic of the fourteenth century and of Venetian of the sixteenth and seventeenth. In tapestries the collection is perhaps the most imposing of any department. In furniture various periods as far back as the Gothic are illustrated. The ivories show the development of that art in all its aspects. The collection of miniatures is doubtless the largest ever brought together by one person. We are glad that such a gathering of art objects is to be kept together for the æsthetic and educational benefit of the thousands who will view it in the metropolis.

An Edwin Booth Theater for New York

The news that an Edwin Booth Theater is to be erected in New York as a memorial to the great American tragedian will be welcomed by

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those who would like to see the American stage adhere more closely than it has of late to the traditions with which Booth's name is associated. The theater, which will cost about $750,000, will be situated on Broadway not far from Columbus Circle. The work of construction will begin early in the fall, and it is planned to open the playhouse in March, 1914, with an all-star production of Shakespeare. For the first year, at least, only Shakespeare will be produced in the theater, which is to be under the direction of a committee of five theatrical men of experience. While actuated largely by sentiment, the backers of the enterprise, who are said to be persons of social and financial prominence in New York, feel that a theater devoted solely to the Elizabethan dramatist may well prove a lucrative venture in a city that has generously supported recent revivals of Shakespeare. The Booth Theater Corporation plans to give over several floors of the building to extensive Booth memorials and to a Shakespeare library. Neither pains nor expense will be spared to make this library the most complete collection of the works of the great poet, including rare editions, anywhere to be found. Already a movement is on foot to secure a building adjacent to the theater for use as a "Shakespeare Club," where lectures on the dramatist by actors and actresses, college professors, and other authorities will be open to the public. Probably two companies will be employed by the directors of the theater, one to present Shakespeare to audiences "on the road," while the other cast plays at home. It is noteworthy that a similar project, namely, the construction of a theater to be devoted to the production of Shakespeare and dedicated to the late Sir Henry Irving, has been undertaken in London by English capitalists. The directors of the memorial to the American and to the English actor are vying with each other in the prodigality with which their plans are put into effect. In point of architecture and interior decoration the Edwin Booth Theater will be the most pretentious memorial of its kind ever erected in America. Since the old Booth Theater at Twenty-third Street and Sixth Avenue was torn down, more than a quarter of a century ago, to make room for a modern department store, New York has been without a tangible souvenir of the family that contributed one of the brightest pages to the history of the stage in the United States.

The Men of the Old Stone Age

The discovery of certain caves in southwestern Europe brings us near to the men of the old stone age. Their history extends from the close of the last glacial age, say twenty-five thousand to twenty thousand years ago, to the arrival of the men of the new stone age, perhaps ten thousand years ago. We now know that these early men had a crude form of religion, that their dead were properly buried, that among them were undoubtedly chiefs or rulers, and certainly hunters and flint-makers. Their primitive implements are interesting and surprisingly modern. For instance, they used tooth picks! So states the director of the École Odontotechnique in Paris. Now, however, we have other evidence of an early age than its primitive implements. If the industrial history of our race was begun by these artisans, they were succeeded by artists. To the stone implements there succeeded bone implements, and coincident with the bone there appeared attempts at sculpture and painting, as we now find from discoveries in France and Spain. To get to the history of art, therefore, we no longer need to go to Egypt or Assyria, but to the caves of France and Spain. They contain the first preserved paintings. How old are they? Anywhere from twenty-five thousand to more than two hundred thousand years old, according to the authority consulted. What is of more interest, however, is the fact that, as these works of art disclose, the cave man's life was doubtless superior to that of his nomad brother of the plains. For, according to Professor George Grant MacCurdy, of Yale, in the shelter and safety of the rocky fastnesses centers of culture arose. The caves were regarded, also, as sacred spots. The ideas sculptured and pictured there were often prayers for success in the various struggles of men against animals, or of tribe with tribe.

The Oldest Art Gallery in the World

The paintings are of particular interest. In their first stages they are crude drawings and etchings done in red or black crayon. The next stage shows some shade. The next stage includes the use of additional colors, and the final stage indicates a real command of color. In the caves of France, near Toulouse, and also in the valley of the Dordogne, zoölogists find depicted the characteristic animals of the old stone age,

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namely, bison, horses, reindeer, stag, and mammoth; but in the Altamira cave, in Spain, President Henry Fairfield Osborne, of the American Museum of Natural History, finds the finest expression of palæolithic art. Its frescoed ceiling is more than sixty feet long, and shows, in polychrome, bison, horses, stags, and wild boar. The cave thus forms perhaps the oldest art gallery in the world. Its paintings were discovered in 1879 in the grounds of a Spanish nobleman, who was digging in the cave without realizing that it was decorated. His little daughter, who accompanied him, happened to look up at the vaulted ceiling overhead, and shouted, "Toros—toros!" (bulls—bulls) with such excitement that the father paused to investigate. It is safe to say, says Mr. Wissler, of the American Museum of Natural History, that this little Spanish girl was the first person within many thousand years to set eyes on those prehistoric paintings. The excellence of the drawing is the first thing to strike the observer, but his next observation will probably be that there is no perspective composition. Each figure stands alone. The subjects chosen are almost exclusively the large mammals of the times—the bison, mammoth, reindeer, horse, wild boar, and rhinoceros. Their relative frequency of occurrence, says Mr. Wissler, is almost in the order stated. Occasionally, he adds, deer and ibex are found, and, very rarely, birds. Another interesting thing about this cave is its proof of the fact that in the development of painting the earliest art was pictorial, not decorative. Decoration came with the new stone age—namely, the elaboration of geometric patterns. Commenting upon this, Mr. Wissler says that the fact is merely historical and not biological; there seems to be no inherent reason why geometric art might not have developed first had the attention of the early man been focused upon it. Thus the discoveries in the caves in France and Spain give us a new glimpse of the men of the old stone age.

The Growth of the English Language

Four new words are added to the English language every day, if we may accept the dictionaries as a standard of measurement. During the last three centuries the rate of growth of the dictionaries has been 1,500 words a year. In 1616 John Bullokar, the first English lexicographer, published his "Compleat English Dictionary," with 5,080 words. Edward Phillips in 1658 was able to find 13,000 words for his "New World of English Words," and his effort was in turn surpassed by the publication in 1720 of Nathan Bailey's dictionary, with a vocabulary of 45,000. Twenty-five years later appeared Dr. Johnson's famous lexicon, which was not supplanted till 1828, when its vocabulary of 50,000 words was more than tripled by Noah Webster's "American Dictionary." That the inventiveness of English writers did not abate during the later nineteenth century was evidenced by the publication of the "Imperial Dictionary," with 200,000 words, and the "Century Dictionary," with a still larger number, followed in 1894 by Dr. Isaac Funk's "Standard Dictionary," containing 318,000. There have been several editions of this, but the one soon to appear will eclipse them all. This will contain 450,000 words. Its editor, Dr. Frank Vizetelly, says that much of the apparent expansion of the language is due to improved means of compilation; but that while dictionaries do not furnish an exact measure of word increase, they do give us an approximation of what development to expect in the future. This authority points out that all tongues have been materially enriched by recent advances in chemistry, botany, aviation, wireless telegraphy, and other sciences. There are now in fact 600,000 English words, but about one-quarter of this number are rare scientific terms or words that are obsolete or obsolescent. "Not more than 25,000 are of Anglo-Saxon origin," says the editor of the "Standard Dictionary." "It is noteworthy," he adds, "that Americans are adopting the pronunciation used in England, and that such usages as 'Eyetalian' (for Italian) and 'sofay' (for sofa) are disappearing. Thank Heaven, though, we haven't adopted all the faults of this pronunciation. We don't yet say 'Miden Line.'" It is interesting to observe that an American, Mr. Gifford Pinchot, is one of the most prolific of recent word inventors. He has introduced some thirty terms, most of them relating to forestry and logging. Mr. Roosevelt has added a number of terms to the vocabulary of natural history, and Sir Ernest Shackleton, the explorer, is another whose word coinage has been approved by the etymologists. English continues to be the most widely used language. There are now 160,000,000 persons who speak the tongue of Shakespeare.

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A Questionable Sale

Private letters written to or by eminent people, and unpublished manuscripts, seem to be in a kind of "twilight zone" in the matter of ownership and control; and the world is in the possession of many pieces of immature and unrevised writing and of many fragments of uncompleted works which would never have been published if the wishes of their authors had been consulted or respected. There is great carelessness in the use of private letters in biographies, and in the publication of private correspondence in newspapers; some of the sensational newspapers do not hesitate to bribe confidential secretaries to betray their trusts, or to buy files of letters stolen from their owners. From time to time unavailing protests are made against the sale, often by auction, of intimate letters written by people of note to a man of letters who has died without taking the precaution to destroy the memorials of his friendships. The question of ownership of literary material has come up in a new form in Great Britain. The Liverpool Athenæum has sold, for a sum of money reported to be not less than twenty thousand dollars, what are known as the Glenriddell Burns manuscripts, consisting of letters and poems largely in the poet's handwriting. As usual, it is reported that the purchaser is an American! In such cases it is customary to berate the purchaser as the guilty party in the transaction; in this instance, however, it is upon the seller that the burden of condemnation falls. It is urged that the donor placed these documents in the possession of the Athenæum because she regarded them as national heirlooms and the institution to which she gave them as a permanent custodian of such treasures; and that, while a private collector may do what he chooses with his possessions, a public institution must respect moral as well as legal rights.

$110,000 for Sunday-Schools Raised in One Day

The World Sunday-School Convention at Zurich, Switzerland, has adjourned. The next Convention will take place three years hence at Tokyo, the invitation brought by the Japanese Christians to hold the Convention there being unanimously accepted. For the prosecution of Sunday-school work during the next three years $175,000 is needed. Of this sum, says the despatch from Zurich, $110,000 was pledged at a single morning money-raising session. More than twenty-five hundred delegates were in attendance at the Convention, coming from about fifty countries. The delegates represented every State and province of the United States and Canada, except Utah, New Mexico, and Manitoba. The State of Pennsylvania led in the number of delegates, namely 175. A letter from President Wilson, which should have wide attention, was read at the Convention. As he said, no study is more important to a child than the study of the Bible and the truths it teaches. "There is no more effective agency for such study than the Sunday-school. It certainly is one of the greatest factors in our lives in the building up of character and the development of moral fiber, for its influence begins almost as soon as the child is able to talk and continues throughout life. The Sunday-school lesson of to-day is the code of morals of to-morrow. Hence too much attention cannot be paid to the work which the Sunday-school is doing." The President is right. But too much attention cannot be paid as well to the work which the Sunday-school is *leaving undone.*

German Children and Their Savings

Mr. George Nicholas Ifft, our Consul at Nuremberg, in a recent report to the Department of State, printed in the "Daily Consular and Trade Reports," describes an extremely interesting new savings device which had been installed at Nuremberg. The device is a slot machine into which one may deposit a ten-pfennig piece—almost two and a half cents. Thereupon the machine delivers a gummed ten-pfennig savings stamp. This device had been originated by the City Savings Bank at Nuremberg, a municipal institution. The bank furnishes without charge a savings card, five inches square, marked off into twenty squares. To this card the stamps are to be attached, and when the card is filled up it represents a value of two marks—nearly fifty cents. Upon presentation at the bank the depositor is credited with that amount. One of these automatic machines was placed in the corridor of the bank office at the City Hall and the other two in the corridors of high school buildings. The success of these slot machines, we are glad to say, has been so great that Mr. Ifft now informs The Outlook of the city's purchase of five additional machines to be placed in school buildings and street-car waiting-rooms.

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THE BALKAN DISAPPOINTMENT

It is both puzzling and disappointing to find the people of the Balkan States—the Servians, the Bulgarians, and the Greeks—engaged in a bloody internecine war after they had won the admiration of the world by uniting to drive Turkish misrule from the Balkan Peninsula. Moreover, their union was apparently based upon the highest sentiments of patriotism, personal sacrifice, and human liberty. On these grounds they appealed to the world, and won the sympathy of every lover of human freedom.

These allies, once united in what seemed to be the finest bonds of brotherhood, are now engaged not only in killing each other, but in accusing each other of greed, selfishness, and treachery.

The condition of antagonism, jealousy, and suffering now existing in the Balkan Peninsula is strikingly set forth in three documents which we print on another page—two of them being cablegrams addressed to Mr. Roosevelt and received during his absence, while the third is a letter from an official of the Greek Government. The situation is such as almost to convert the American observer to Austria's belief that she alone, by imposing her authority throughout the Balkan Peninsula, can restore order and maintain peace in that unhappy region.

But, taking things at their worst, there is ground for hope that the Allies may come to their senses and may settle their personal quarrels without involving European intervention or the entire loss of the world's sympathy. The appeal to Mr. Roosevelt from Bulgaria and the letter to The Outlook from the Greek Consul, to which we have already referred, while they are accusatory in temper, really indicate that the Greeks and the Bulgars desire the good opinion of civilized men, and are now awakening to the necessity of regaining that good opinion.

The experience of Italy throws some light upon the evolutionary process which is going on in the Balkan States. In the first half of the nineteenth century the Italian principalities, disunited by dialects, jealousies, religious creeds, and ambitious monarchies, united under the pressure of a patriotic desire to expel the Austrian invader. When the Austrian was driven out, the old sources of conflict reasserted themselves, and bitterest political and physical conflicts within the boundaries of Italy itself were brought to an end only by the long-suffering genius of Cavour, who, with the co-operation of the great and generous spirit of Victor Emmanuel, established Italian peace and stability.

There are to-day in the Balkan States, so far as we can see, no Victor Emmanuels and no Cavours. But who knows that they may not be brought forth out of the period of labor through which the Peninsula is passing? When that great birthday comes, it may usher in—we hope it will usher in—a real Balkan Federation.

AN INVIGORATING NOVEL

Two novels which are interesting many readers differ radically in manner and in construction but have one subject in common: the influence of the man who deals with business as an isolated activity and not as a human relationship; and the attention which these stories are receiving is due in no small measure to the growing sense of social responsibility. "V. V.'s Eyes" has a narrower compass and is in a lighter vein than "The Inside of the Cup" (Macmillan), but it is not less serious in spirit; the style is more indirect and often forced, but effective for its purpose. The central figure of the story does not formulate his social creed, but he is quite as much in earnest as the young clergyman whose career Mr. Churchill dramatizes in a series of vividly told experiences. "V. V." does not rationalize the situation; he is one of those well-born souls who seem to find their places in the world without searching, who are normally good without a suggestion of piety, and who speak and act not so much from a painfully acquired conviction as from that direct perception which, in dealing with human relations, is a form of moral genius. Some one has said that he belongs to the little company of "God's Fools," who live as the birds live, without thought for food or house or raiment, concerned only with the care of others.

"The Inside of the Cup" is, on the other hand, the story of man who, at the start, is hardly aware that there is either an intellectual or a social problem, and whose coming into this knowledge is a birth into the world of strife. "V. V." has but a single problem to solve, and he is hardly aware that it is a problem; it is, rather, a way of life; he knows that there are many who are not walking in it, but he is hardly conscious that

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he is walking in it; for him there is no other way.

Hodder, the central figure in Mr. Churchill's story, finds that way only through great confusion and darkness. To him it is a problem, not a divination; something to be worked out rather than thought out, and the answer to which comes through experience rather than as the result of an intellectual process.

Hodder begins as a conservative rector of an affluent country parish. He is well educated, he has a deeply religious nature inclined to asceticism, he preaches to a well-bred congregation in comfortable circumstances. He is at times uncomfortably direct, and there are those who see in him the possibilities of something like fanaticism. He is not wholly at peace with himself, but he is as yet outside the circle of modern thought, and he is brought in contact neither with social injustice nor with the misery of a host of working people.

Then comes a call to an old, wealthy parish in a Western city, and he takes the leadership of a church from which the shifting of population is draining the class from which its parishioners have been drawn. The locality has lost its old-time social distinction, and the slum has come so close to the doors of the church that it is impossible to escape the searching questions which it puts to those who have any sense of social responsibility. The most prominent supporter of the parish is a capitalist of high outward respectability, whose conception of life is in the barbaric stage in which every man looks out for himself and no man spares his dearest friend when it comes to a matter of business. This unhappy man has so paralyzed normal human feeling that the dreadful fate of Midas has overtaken him; everything he touches turns to gold. He blights every life he ought to nourish, and his world is as desolate as a valley through which a volcano has poured its tide of lava. His wife has withered and died; his daughter leaves him to escape suffocation; his son is alienated by a hardness of purpose which is not inconsistent with a selfish affection. The girl whom both ought to help is driven to a life of shame by the relentless and unseeing father; those who have been beggared by his merciless business methods curse him, and the scoffers find in his prominence in the affairs of the church occasion for scornful criticism.

The young preacher finds himself confronted with a problem which evokes all his spiritual gallantry, and in dealing with it his faith is changed from a traditional basis to one of personal experience, and his conception of the function of the church from that of witnessing to great truths to the application of those truths to the conditions in the next street. Mr. Churchill has not only stated the problem in its most extreme terms, but he has made its solution involve a revolution in the spiritual and intellectual life of the preacher, and his personal happiness as well.

The situation for the preacher is one of great difficulty, but the perplexity of it is lessened by the very extreme terms in which it is stated; it is presented in unshaded black and white; in actual experience the lines are usually much less distinct and the issue is not so sharply defined. "The Inside of the Cup" is the story of a clear-cut fight for the soul of a church; the preacher is face to face with the problem of dealing with a man who stands for the church and who is, so far as the greater Christian virtues are concerned, a whited sepulcher. All attempts to bring this dead soul to life having failed, there is but one way left to save the church from the contamination of corruption, and Hodder takes that way without flinching. He is a true priest alike in his fearless denunciation of corruption and his ministry of mercy to the victims.

This is a very sincere story by a very earnest man, who has tried to dramatize two of the most fundamental experiences through which many open-minded religious men are passing to-day. It has fine qualities, as all Mr. Churchill's stories have, and it ought to be in the hands of every religious teacher; the situation which confronts thinking men who must verify historical statements of faith by their own knowledge of life, and must make an inherited creed a personal conviction by experience, is stated with such energy that, whether a man accepts the conclusions or rejects them, he will get a clearer view of the perplexities which beset many of the men who sit in the pews of the churches to-day.

The intellectual struggle is described too much in detail, and the arguments presented sometimes lack the convincing force which moved Hodder from point to point. The most transparent sincerity will not take the place of the expert's knowledge when one is dealing in detail with matters which have been in discussion for centuries. "Robert 'Elsmere" was written by a very able woman who, although not an original investigator,

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had lived all her life in the atmosphere of scholarship touching the matters it discussed; and "Robert Elsmere" held the attention of a host of readers, not because its arguments convinced, but because a crisis in the experience of a human soul was dramatized with energy of imagination and intensity of emotional conflict.

But even when he is not entirely convincing and impedes the current of his story by too much discussion, Mr. Churchill does not fail to be interesting and impressive. "The Inside of the Cup" has the nobility which comes only from high purpose and perfect sincerity; it has the breadth of interest which Mr. Churchill always gives his fiction; and the love-making, which grows like a flower in a tempest, has a fresh and unhackneyed charm. In the flood of stories of ephemeral interest and relaxing intellectual and moral quality this novel has the lift and invigorating air of a mountain.

THE ONE THING NEEDFUL

The perversity of our human ways is beyond comprehension. We certainly often seem to act as if we liked to be troubled, as if we enjoyed harassing our spirits with problems and difficulties. For we need almost never do so. There is one sure and simple, immediate way out of all questions that ever arise; there is one answer that might anticipate all questions; there is one absolute standard for the testing and governing of every life; and that is—the will of God. But we, for the most part, will have none of it. We have deliberately invented artificial standards of our own, and have set a variety of small ends up over against the one sufficient end, and have thereby brought dire confusion and pain upon ourselves.

No one can ever fulfill an artificial end. The true end—patient, long-suffering, absolutely inflexible—turns and overturns, until, out of a thousand mischances, it at last sees its way clear to a consummation which was inevitable from the beginning. We cannot avoid it, but we can delay it—pitifully for ourselves.

The chief trouble seems to be that we have deluded ourselves with the notion that the will of God is hostile to our happiness. "Thy will be done" is seldom spoken with joyful expectation, but is breathed low in resignation. God must have need of all his patience when he hears us pray.

As if God's will could ever be to work anything but the fullest development, and therefore the fullest blessedness, of his creation! Why did he make us at all? To accomplish some beautiful cosmic purpose. Each little part was perfectly planned to complete the whole, and every atom might know universal beatitude if it were obedient. Not a human soul of us but understands that particular personal happiness hurts more than it soothes. When great joy comes our way, our finiteness oppresses us, we fret against the barriers of our so circumscribed capacity; and all too often we greet the fulfillment of our dreams with tears instead of songs.

Nor is the universal happiness all there is to the matter—though that is enough. Each individual finds his own immediate, temporal gratification only in the will of God. He may think that this cannot be so, he may strive feverishly to attain some end that he has devised for himself; his efforts will result in restless misery. Whereas, if he listens, watches, and obeys, he will from minute to minute take the sure path to his own in the world, and only his own can ever receive him or mean anything to him.

Yet it is not always a simple matter—this reading of the will of God. With the best intentions in the world, the most sincere people are often perplexed to understand what they should do next. Perhaps we have all blunted our perceptions by long disobedience; or perhaps Heaven thinks that a certain amount of perplexity is good for us. At any rate, we are sometimes put to it to take our bearings; we have to plead and agonize for a beacon light. When God withholds himself, there is nothing to do but wait.

But there are certain indications in our own hearts which may convict us of sin or of righteousness. Great restlessness generally means that something is wrong, that we are pulling against God, resisting his touch. "In his will is our peace;" never spoke poet more truly and profoundly than Dante in those quiet words. "Be still, and know that I am God"—there again is an absolutely eternal and comprehensive admonition. Be still! For this purpose the churches wait, with their open doors and their dim and holy silence. One has but to enter and kneel and wait, giving himself over, letting himself go, resigning his own conscious and unconscious will, utterly abandoning it; and by and by he will see again the "quiet face

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of God" looking down upon him, and he will be safe once more.

It has been truly said somewhere that a man never really possesses anything until he has abandoned it to Heaven, honestly letting it go, and Heaven has then surprised him by giving it back to him. With only a few treasures among the many which we clutch and relinquish will Heaven ever reward us thus; but they are the only things worth having, they are the inalienable possessions of our souls.

It is strange that we do not realize this. A good for which we must scheme and strive, over the precariousness of which we must hold our breath, is not solidly good at all; it is a transient vexation. The real goods of life are as surely ours as the dawn; there is no escaping them.

Therefore, from all this, it follows that the one thing needful for any human being to know is the will of God. There lies our duty and our deep content. There lies our only chance of making our existence at all worth while; there lies the significance and salvation of the universe. The Kingdom will come as soon as the Will is done. Let us not thwart it.

THE CURRENCY BILL AND THE BANKS

I—WHY THE BANKERS OPPOSE THE BILL AND WHY THEY OUGHT TO SUPPORT IT

THE word banker exercises great influence in every community. This is partly because it implies the possession of money, and the man with money unquestionably possesses power. It is also partly because the bankers of the United States are the well-to-do men, the men of education and general intelligence, the men who move in good society, and this implies intellectual power. The average American has, it is true, an exaggerated respect for money, but he also has a highly commendable respect for intellectual power.

If a merchant, or a teacher, or an editor, or even a President of the United States, expresses an opinion on a matter of finance, it is often said that the opinion cannot be worth much because the man who utters it is not a "financier." If a banker, however, says something on finance, no matter how dogmatic, it is accepted as the word of an expert—as though an astronomer should speak about the stars, or a metallurgist about mining, or a chemist about the analysis of food, or a doctor about anatomy.

Now, as a matter of fact, a banker is not necessarily always a financier. A banker, according to the "Century Dictionary," is "one who traffics in money;" a financier is "an officer who is intrusted with the control of financial interests; one who regulates or manages the public revenues."

One might as well say that all manufacturers are political economists as to assume that all bankers are financiers. The greatest financiers of modern times were not bankers at all. Think of their names: Alexander Hamilton, Albert Gallatin, Salmon P. Chase, William Windom, William E. Gladstone.

Hamilton was a publicist from very young manhood; Gallatin was a merchant, a farmer, and a teacher of French in Harvard College; Chase and Windom were lawyers; and Gladstone, than whom there has perhaps never been a greater financier in the English-speaking world, who shaped budgets and planned financial legislation with consummate skill, was much more interested in English theology and Greek literature than he was in "trafficking in money."

We have no wish to detract from the deservedly high esteem in which American bankers are held. They are a fine body of men. They perform a great public service in looking with fidelity after the money of their shareholders and their depositors; but there is a popular fallacy that they are somehow or other specially designed by Providence to shape the financial legislation of this country because they are daily handling money.

We think this fallacy ought to be frankly attacked. If it is a correct principle that the man who daily handles a commodity knows all about the laws which govern its production and distribution, then the cotton-spinner ought to be able to tell you how to eradicate the boll

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weevil; the coal-miner ought to be able to tell you what kind of a grate-bar and how much forced draught will give you the best steam power in a battle-ship; the bookbinder ought to make a good critic of poetry, and barbers should make successful professors of psychology!

Nor is the business man, who, naturally and properly, is primarily concerned in a reasonable profit from the development of his business, always the best judge of the fundamental laws that govern that development.

When George Stephenson made the locomotive practicable, and introduced the steam railways into England, the owners and dealers in horses fought him tooth and nail because, they said (and, what is worse, believed), he was going to destroy all business done with horses. What is the actual result? The steam railway has done more than any other single industrial agency to develop the horse business and promote the welfare of the horse dealer.

When Sprague and Westinghouse and their co-laborers developed the trolley car, the railways fought the suburban and inter-urban trolley; the railway men said that the trolley would ruin their business; but the results soon showed that the trolleys were a great feeder of the railway; and now we can hardly take the trolleys from the railways by drastic legislation, so attached to them have the railway managers become.

The bankers opposed the introduction of the Postal Savings Bank into this country. Those bankers who were engaged in the management of savings banks were especially vehement in their opposition. The latter, in their National Convention, condemned the postal savings banks on the ground that it was going to destroy their business. The event has proved that they were mistaken. The striking group of telegrams printed on the following pages show clearly that the savings banks have not only not suffered but have benefited from the introduction of the Postal Savings Bank.

The railway managers of the country used every political and persuasive power they possessed to prevent, ten years ago, the passage of the Hepburn Railway Rate Law, by which the railways of the country were put under the regulation of a permanent and able Inter-State Commerce Commission. The railway men, in all sincerity no doubt, asserted that the Hepburn Law was going to destroy their business. The law was passed in spite of their protest, and its operation has been of the greatest pecuniary benefit to the railway transportation business of this country. Some of the firmest friends to-day of the Inter-State Commerce Commission and of the principle of Government regulation of railways are found among the railway men themselves.

Here are four instances of sagacious, practical business men, deceived or prejudiced by their own self-interest, opposing legislation the practical effect of which was to promote their welfare and prosperity.

The analogy, we think, is plain. The bankers of the country who are opposing the Currency Bill of the Wilson Administration are not only making a patriotic mistake, but are really obstructing their own progress.

If the bill is enacted into law, as we believe and hope it will be, we do not hesitate to assert that the bankers of the country will be the first to rush to its defense if it is threatened in any way.

There is not a banker in the country who does not feel the need in his own business of an elastic currency, such as is described in the Little Catechism on money which we print on page 801. There is not a banker in the country; who has given any thought to the matter, who does not know that the bill now before Congress provides on the whole an excellent plan for making our bank currency elastic. One of the ablest and most public-spirited bankers of New York, Mr. A. Barton Hepburn, Chairman of the Currency Commission of the American Bankers' Association, calls the bill drawn by Representative Glass "a very good bill in its *general* features and purpose." What, then, is the *specific* reason why the representatives of National banks throughout the country are opposing the bill? Here is the reason, pointedly expressed in a resolution of a group of sixty bankers, representing the Middle West, held in Omaha a week or two ago:

> We contend that the system of control devised is inherently wrong in this: that the banks furnishing the capital of the Federal Reserve Bank are practically denied a voice in their management, which will be placed in the hands of a body of men whose relations to the business will be political and possibly partisan.

This is the old cry against Government regulation which the railways made ten years ago when the Hepburn Rate Bill was passed.

The Administration Currency Bill provides

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that general control of the entire National bank system shall be in the hands of seven men, three of the seven being the Secretary of the Treasury, the Comptroller of the Currency, and the Secretary of Agriculture. The other four members are to be chosen by the President of the United States, with the advice and consent of the Senate. It is mandatory upon the President that at least one of his four appointees shall be an experienced banker.

Under the Aldrich or Monetary Bill of 1911 the entire membership of this Federal Reserve Board would have been chosen by the bankers themselves.

Here, then, is the whole trouble. The case is that of private control versus Government control. To ask that the bankers shall select the Federal Reserve Board is like asking that the railways shall choose the Inter-State Commerce Commission. It is perhaps not unnatural that the bankers should be reluctant to let the control pass out of their hands; but is it quite fair for them to claim that what is proposed is to substitute "political control" for business control?

If the Federal Reserve Board, appointed by the President, with the advice and consent of the Senate, is "political," then the Inter-State Commerce Commission is "political" and the Supreme Court is "political."

If the American people can trust the President to choose their Supreme Court for them, the bankers can certainly trust him to choose the Federal Reserve Board. A President who would prostitute the Federal Reserve Board to his own base political and partisan advantage would endeavor to so prostitute the Supreme Court and would deserve to be impeached.

No political, social, financial, or industrial system was ever devised without its most important element being confidence in human honor. If the American system ever reaches a point where the President cannot be trusted, in the full light of publicity and with the supervision of the United States Senate, to appoint our Federal judges, our inter-State commerce commissions, and our bank supervisors, it will be time to abandon that system and to adopt some form of benevolent despotism.

Much of the banking opposition is not based seriously on the two per cent bond, on the amount of reserve required by law, or upon the rate of discount. Let us divest our minds of everything that may confuse the issue.

The issue is between private regulation by a group of men elected in a directors' room, and public regulation by a group of men in regard to whose choice the entire country has a voice after the fullest publicity and discussion.

II—THE POSTAL SAVINGS BANK AND THE CURRENCY BILL

Last week The Outlook sent the following telegram to each of the Governors of the forty-eight States:

Will you kindly ask your superintendent of banking or some other appropriate officer to inform us by telegram at our expense whether deposits in private savings banks in your State have increased or decreased since the establishment of postal savings banks? Our theory is that the postal savings bank has stimulated thrift in all directions.

Up to the time of going to press telegraphic responses had been received from thirty-seven States. Some of these responses, as, for example, those from Mr. Pfeiffer, State Bank Commissioner of Colorado, and Mr. E. H. Doyle, Bank Commissioner of Michigan, Governor Haines of Maine, and Governor Colquitt of Texas, definitely say that the postal savings bank has increased the business of the ordinary savings bank. It is quite natural that most of the replies, however, since they come from State officers, should contain no definite expression of opinion. But the figures in every instance, as the reader will see, demonstrate conclusively that the postal savings bank has not affected other savings institutions unfavorably, and in almost every instance the statistics show beyond the shadow of doubt that the effect of the postal savings bank on the private banks and the State savings banks has been advantageous. We believe that there is in all this a striking and useful lesson in considering the Currency Bill now before Congress, and this lesson we have pointed out in the previous article. We think our readers will be interested in the replies, which are given in full. It should be borne in mind that the postal

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savings bank was inaugurated on January 1, 1911. The Third Assistant Postmaster-General informs us that the last audited figures show the total amount of postal savings deposits to be $32,173,354.

ALABAMA

Montgomery, Alabama, July 31, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

Answering your telegram to the Governor, savings deposits in all State banks of Alabama have increased from $6,059,000 to $9,007,000 since postal savings banks were established.

A. E. WALKER,
Superintendent of Banks.

ARIZONA

Phœnix, Arizona, July 30, 1913.

The Outlook Magazine, New York:

Answering inquiry addressed to Governor, total bank deposits have increased twenty per cent during last twelve months; savings deposits proportionately. To work up definite comparative statement would require some time and perhaps some correspondence. For your immediate information the general statement might be made, subject to verification, that in communities composed of Americans the postal deposits average only about one per cent of total; in mining communities, composed largely of foreign-born population, percentage of postal savings is much larger. J. C. CALLAGHAN,
State Bank Comptroller.

ARKANSAS

Little Rock, Arkansas, July 31, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

Your message of the 30th to the Governor has been referred to me for reply. In my opinion, the deposits in savings banks are increasing each year. I believe the greater part of the deposits received by the postal savings banks are from foreigners and people who have never used the private savings bank. I am not able to give you comparison of figures, as our Banking Department was only created at last Legislature.

JOHN M. DAVIS,
Bank Commissioner.

CALIFORNIA

San Francisco, California, July 30, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

Deposits in California savings banks June 30, 1910, were $331,000,000, and on June 4, 1913, they were $430,000,000.

W. R. WILLIAMS, Supt. of Banks.

COLORADO

Denver, Colorado, July 30, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

Savings deposits as well as other deposits have constantly increased in all State banks under the supervision of this Department since the establishment of the postal savings bank. Our theory is that while the postal savings bank may have stimulated thrift, it has principally been used by those who have heretofore concealed their funds or carried them in the form of money orders.

EMIL W. PFEIFFER,
State Bank Commissioner.

CONNECTICUT

Hartford, Connecticut, July 30, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

Official returns from savings banks in Connecticut made but once a year. Last report in October, 1912. From October 1, 1911, to October 1, 1912, there was an increase of over $10,000,000 in savings bank deposits.

BANK COMMISSIONERS.

DELAWARE

Dover, Delaware, July 30, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

Your letter to the Governor referred to this office. Individual deposits in savings banks in Delaware on June 14, 1912, were $10,800,000, and on June 4, 1913, $11,524,000, showing increase during first year of postal savings banks.

THOMAS W. MILLER, Sec'y of State.

FLORIDA

Tallahassee, Florida, July 30, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

The gratifying increase in deposits in savings banks in this State is due to the general advance along all lines. In my opinion, postal savings banks have not aided or retarded the increase. W. V. KNOTT, Comptroller.

GEORGIA

Atlanta, Georgia, July 31, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

Your telegram to the Governor received. We have no private savings banks in Georgia, and law provides for no savings banks of any kind. A. H. ULM,
Sec'y Executive Department.

IDAHO

Boise, Idaho, July 30, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

No private savings bank in State. Savings deposits in State banks having savings de-

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partments have increased thirty per cent in the past year.

A. E. REID,
State Bank Commissioner.

ILLINOIS

Springfield, Illinois, July 30, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

State bank examiners have no jurisdiction over private banks. A very large percentage of the bank charters issued in the last six months were formerly private banks.

WILLIAM RYAN, State Treasurer.

IOWA

Des Moines, Iowa, July 30, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

Savings deposits not materially increased in Iowa by postal deposits. Private banks not under State supervision.

JOHN L. BLEAKLY.

KANSAS

Topeka, Kansas, July 30, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

Deposits in banks in Kansas that have savings departments show no unnatural growth since the postal savings law went into effect. Savings deposits have increased, of course, just as the other deposits in the individual banks have increased, and in about the same proportion.

M. SAWYER, Bank Commissioner.

KENTUCKY

Frankfort, Kentucky, July 31, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

Your telegram to Governor McCreary has been referred to me for answer. The records of this Department, which only became operative on July 1, 1912, show an increase of $4,600,000 in time and savings deposits in report of June 4, 1913, as compared with September 4, 1912. There is bound to be both a direct and indirect tendency to stimulate thrift in the citizens of any community by the introduction and use of savings banks of any description. Such institutions are not numerous in an agricultural State like Kentucky, where commercial banks are patronized, and therefore the good effects of these banks are not as apparent as they are in the industrial centers.

THEODORE J. SMITH,
Banking Commissioner.

LOUISIANA

Shreveport, Louisiana, July 30, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

Savings deposits in Louisiana State banks showed $4,000,000 more in June, 1913, than shown in September, 1911, when postal savings law went into effect.

W. L. YOUNG, State Bank Examiner.

MAINE

Waterville, Maine, July 31, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

Maine has increased her deposits in all her savings institutions since the establishment of the postal savings bank. Maine's prosperity is largely due to the training her people have had by the savings banks. All of our banks now receive money in savings departments. Our people are extremely prosperous under existing economic laws, but many of our business men are frightened at proposed changes in tariff schedules, and all would like to see the present monopoly of metropolitan banks in some way better regulated by the Government. The country banks are now suffering from unreasonable refusals of the city banks to extend credit to them, and our business interests will be very much injured if this continues.

WILLIAM T. HAINES, Governor of Maine.

MASSACHUSETTS

Boston, Massachusetts, July 30, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

In reply to your telegram to our Governor I would state that the increase in the assets of the savings and co-operative banks in this commonwealth was larger in the year 1912 than in any other year in the history of our savings banks. A school savings system has been taken up by about fifty cities and towns and is cared for by our savings banks, indicating the favor with which it is looked upon for encouraging thrift among the school children. The effect of postal savings banks is not apparent to this department.

AUGUSTUS L. THORNDIKE,
Bank Commissioner.

MICHIGAN

Lansing, Michigan, July 30, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

Savings deposits of State banks have increased since establishment of postal savings banks.

E. H. DOYLE, Commissioner.

MINNESOTA

St. Paul, Minnesota.

The Outlook, New York:

Answering your telegram addressed to Governor Eberhard, Superintendent of Banks informs us that the total increase in State savings deposits from June 7, 1911, to June

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4, 1913, is $11,717,104.77. Deposits quoted June 7, 1911, as follows: Trust companies' savings deposits, $331,060.13; savings bank deposits, $24,956,726.52; State banks savings deposits, $3,415,362.48; total, $28,703,149.13. Deposits, June 4, 1913: Trust company savings deposits, $1,571,562.64; savings bank deposits, $30,399,487.76; State bank savings deposits, $8,449,203.50; total, $40,420,253.90, making increase mentioned. This does not include National banks.

GEORGE F. AUTHIER,
Sec'y to the Governor.

MISSISSIPPI

Jackson, Mississippi, July 31, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

State has no Superintendent of Banks or other officer with data as to private savings banks, nor can I get information.

EARL BREWER, Governor.

MISSOURI

Jefferson City, Missouri, July 31, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

Deposits in Missouri State banks and trust companies between March, 1911, and June, 1913, increased $14,000,000; half of increase was savings accounts. Postal savings have not noticeably affected savings accounts in this State. Such accounts are increasing in about the same ratio.

J. T. MITCHELL, Bank Commissioner.

MONTANA

Helena, Montana.

The Outlook, New York:

Savings deposits in eighty-two incorporated banks June 30, 1910, were $5,646,163.61. Savings deposits in 144 incorporated banks June 4, 1913, were $10,602,956.66. Private banks came under State supervision July 1, 1911, and are not included in these figures. Statistics cover State banks only.

H. S. MCGRAW, State Examiner.

NEBRASKA

Lincoln, Nebraska, July 31, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

Since the establishment of the postal savings banks, deposits in our private savings banks in Nebraska have increased $660,000. A comparison with former years shows the rate of increase to be about the same as before the establishment of the postal savings banks, but as there are many savings banks in the metropolitan cities of the State operating under the Federal Banking Act, and not reporting to the State, we cannot give actual figures as to increase.

JOHN H. MOOREHEAD, Governor.

NEW HAMPSHIRE

Concord, New Hampshire, July 30, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

The savings banks of this State are very little, if at all, affected by the postal savings banks; deposits in latter are not large.

R. H. SCAMMON, Bank Commissioner.

NEW JERSEY

State House, Trenton, New Jersey, July 30, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

Since the last annual statement of the twenty-five savings banks operating in New Jersey, made prior to the opening of the postal savings bank on October 7, 1911, there has been an increase of $13,978,183.77 in the total deposits of savings banks in this State, as follows: December 31, 1910, $105,228,161.10; June 4, 1913, $119,206,344.87. While the actual increase for the period named approximates twelve per cent, our Department records indicate a slight falling off in the annual increase, as these figures show: December 31, 1910, $105,228,161.10; December 31, 1911, $111,168,616.45—total increase for year $5,940,455.35. December 31, 1912, $116,923,632—total increase for year, $5,755,015.55. June 4, 1913, $119,206,344.87—increase for the less than six months period, $2,282,712.87. This would indicate that while there is still a steady increase in the gross deposits, the percentage of annual increase is not as heavy as prior to the opening of the postal savings banks.

JAMES F. FIELDER
(Governor of New Jersey).

NEW MEXICO

Santa Fé, New Mexico.

The Outlook, New York:

The total in savings banks January 1, 1911, was $1,718,812 in twenty-eight banks; on July 1, 1913, $1,924,928 in twenty-seven banks. W. C. MCDONALD, Governor.

NEW YORK

Albany, New York, July 31, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

Answering your telegram to Governor Sulzer, this Department informs you that the date of the institution of the postal savings banks was October 28, 1911. Our statement of deposits in savings banks at the opening of business, July 1, 1911, was $1,594,-

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224,555.93. This was our last report before the institution of the postal savings banks. On January 1, 1912, nearly three months after the law went into effect, our statement showed deposits of $1,619,115,648.45. On July 1, 1912, deposits were $1,660,564,190.93, and on January 1, 1913, $1,689,453,168.86. Our figures from the reports of savings banks at the opening of business on July 1, 1913, will not be ready for publication for at least a week. Am sending printed statements by mail to-day. E. J. GRAHAM,
Second Deputy Supt. of Banks.

OHIO

Columbus, Ohio, July 30, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

Your telegram to Governor Cox answered as follows: State and savings banks in Ohio increased from $407,000,000 deposits on September 25, 1911, to $475,000,000, June 4, 1913. This gain is almost entirely in city banks with savings accounts. Postal savings have nowhere hurt our banks, and in some cases helped them.

EMERY LATTANNER, Supt. of Banks.

OREGON

Salem, Oregon, July 30, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

Answering your telegram to the Governor, reports filed with this Department, June 4, this year, show total savings deposits of two hundred and fifty-three National, State, and private banks to be $2,438,381 more than reported by two hundred and forty-seven banks June 7, 1911. Total postal savings deposits, June 4, this year, $1,129,171.

WILL WRIGHT, Supt. of Banks.

PENNSYLVANIA

Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, July 30, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

Governor Tener referred your telegram to me. I find by our record that on November 30, 1911, the total savings in the trust companies, banks of discount, and savings banks of Pennsylvania, exclusive of building and loan associations, amounted to $332,696,000. On May 2 last (1913) they amounted to $383,450,000. On November 30, 1911, the postal savings deposits, in the same institutions in this State, and exclusive of National banks, amounted to $80,588.20. On May 2 last they amounted to $613,200. Building and loan associations of this State, largely regarded as savings funds, had in total assets at the close of 1912, $213,825,000, an increase of $16,448,000 over the previous year. I am unable to give full statistics comprising private banks in Pennsylvania, for the reason that all private banks engaged in business more than seven years, and which do not engage in the sale of steamship tickets, are exempt from our supervision; consequently several hundred of these places are not required to take out a license or to make any report. WILLIAM H. SMITH,
Commissioner of Banking.

RHODE ISLAND

Providence, Rhode Island, July 31, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

We have no private savings banks in this State. For year ending June 30, 1913, our deposits in State institutions have increased nearly $8,000,000.

GEORGE H. NEWHALL,
Bank Commissioner.

TENNESSEE

Nashville, Tennessee, July 31, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

No statistics available. Bank officials have noted considerable increase.

ROBERT S. HENRY,
Secretary to the Governor.

TEXAS

Austin, Texas.

The Outlook, New York:

Your telegram asking whether the deposits in private savings banks in Texas have increased or decreased since the establishment of postal savings banks received. The deposits in the National and State banks and trust companies have greatly increased in Texas since the postal savings banks provision went into effect. This is largely due, however, to the general prosperity prevailing in our State. O. B. COLQUITT, Governor.

VIRGINIA

Richmond, Virginia, July 31, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

Deposits in our State and savings banks increased about $5,000,000 during last year. General growth of our banks very gratifying. Am sending you comparative statement showing this. C. C. BARKSDALE,
Chief State Bank Examiner.

WASHINGTON

Seattle, Washington, July 30, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

In reply to your telegram to Governor Lister, the savings accounts in this State

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have steadily increased in number and amount since the establishment of postal savings banks, and their establishment has caused no material difference, in our opinion.

W. E. HANSON, State Examiner.

WEST VIRGINIA

Charleston, West Virginia, July 31, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

Replying to your telegram of July 30, deposits in savings departments in private and State banks have increased $4,500,000 from November, 1910, to November, 1912.

H. D. HATFIELD, Governor.

WISCONSIN

Madison, Wisconsin, July 31, 1913.

The Outlook, New York:

The following are amounts of savings deposits in State institutions of Wisconsin: 1908, $22,410,000; 1909, $25,187,000; 1910, $29,478,000; 1911, $33,557,000; 1912, $39,694,000; now $43,663,000.

A. E. KUOLT, Commissioner of Banking.

III—A LITTLE CATECHISM ON MONEY

[Reprinted by request from The Outlook of December 30, 1911]

What is money?

Money is a convenient token of exchange which has been invented by civilized man to facilitate commerce.

What is commerce?

Commerce is the exchange of life's commodities and necessities and of labor by individuals with individuals, communities with communities, and nations with nations.

What are the things which are exchanged in modern commerce?

The six essential things which are bought and sold, as we say, in modern commerce, are food, water, clothing, shelter from inclemency of weather and climate, human intelligence or skill, and human strength or labor.

What is the use of money?

Money is of use only as it enables a man to exchange his labor or his intelligence for food, raiment, and shelter, or to exchange the food, raiment, or shelter which he has stored up and saved for the labor and intelligence of others, or to exchange his commodities for the commodities of others.

To perform this use properly, what qualities must money possess?

It must possess, first, the quality of being universally recognized as a good token of exchange, that is to say, a promise, which will not be repudiated, to pay some of the above-mentioned essentials of commerce; and, second, the quality of being as stable a standard of measure as possible.

Must money possess what is called intrinsic value?

Not necessarily. A piece of money is a token of a promise to pay useful commodities, useful labor, or useful skill. It is the *promise* to pay which must possess intrinsic value, not the token. The only service which "intrinsic value" in the piece of money itself can render is that sometimes it makes the promise to pay more universally recognized, and thus more binding.

Were the "greenbackers" of thirty years ago right, then, in their contention that the most scientific money is paper money?

Philosophically, yes; practically, no, because they could not, or did not, devise means to make the paper money token universally recognizable and reasonably stable as a measure of value.

What do you mean by "measure of value" as applied to money?

The measuring quality of money is the quality which enables men to determine, in commerce, how many loaves of bread one will give for a pair of shoes, or how many hours of labor one will give to a dentist for pulling a tooth. All commodities fluctuate in value in accordance with the needs or the desires of men, or with the variation in the action of forces of nature. A favorable season produces a great wheat crop, and the price of bread goes down; a coal strike comes, and the price of coal goes up. The dollar as a measure of value must therefore be based upon the commodity which fluctuates the least. In modern times gold is this commodity, and for this reason the most highly civilized nations use gold as the measure of the value of money. But gold itself constitutes only a fraction of the money used in the world, and its chief usefulness as money is because it is a measure and not because it makes surer the promise to pay.

Are the words currency and money interchangeable?

For all practical purposes, yes. The money

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tokens used in the United States consist of gold, silver, copper, and nickel coins; of National bank notes; of "greenbacks" or United States Government notes; and of all checks and negotiable personal notes. In a system of finance that works properly all these tokens are interchangeable, and are therefore all practically money; and all money that is current is currency.

Is there any other quality of money, or of currency that represents money in practical life, which has not been mentioned above?

Yes. Perhaps the most important quality of commercial money, the money which serves as a token of buying and selling, is that it should not only be stable in character or in its measure value, but that it should fluctuate in its volume. When all the farmers of the country are selling their wheat, they must receive money tokens which will enable them the next spring to obtain new seed and fertilizer. It is manifest that in an agricultural country like the United States there will be a great quantity of money tokens needed in the fall and spring when there are great numbers of commercial transactions taking place, and a less quantity of money tokens needed in midwinter and midsummer.

Why do we not, then, put our money away in drawers and safes in the winter and summer, and simply take it out when it is needed in the fall and spring?

Because idle money brings in no returns, while money which is at work increases itself. Under the present National banking system, through which the greatest part of our current money is supplied to the people, the banks, as a guarantee of their good faith, have to pay the Government for the right of issuing the currency. As they have to pay by the year, whether or not they use their currency in commercial loans to farmers and merchants, the natural tendency is to make speculative and undesirable loans at times when the legitimate commerce of the country does not need the money. This speculative use of money is one of the chief causes of financial panics.

How large can the volume of paper currency safely be made?

We can safely have in circulation at any one time paper currency equal in amount to the volume of the legitimate commercial transactions of the time. A promise to pay is said to be "as good as gold" when we know that the man who makes the promise is both determined and able to keep it. A paper dollar (which is simply a promise to pay) is "as good as gold" when the bank that issues it is determined and able (or is compelled and enabled by the Government) to pay it. The volume of paper dollars issued by a bank should be governed by two factors: first, the legitimate need of the merchants, farmers, and business men of the community for these paper dollars, and, second, the ability of the bank to make them worth a dollar in commodities or in labor.

Can the plan of the Monetary Commission be defined in a few words?

Briefly, the plan is to provide machinery by which a National bank can at any given time provide the community in which it does business with the currency or money which that community legitimately needs, coupled with a system of Government supervision so effective that the bank will be enabled to keep its promise to make the paper dollars good when presented for payment.

Is the plan of the Monetary Commission designed for the benefit of bankers?

Its chief and fundamental effect will be to benefit the farmers, merchants, and manufacturers, and so, of course, the consumers and householders, of the country. It will give more liberty and efficiency to the smaller banks, and less despotic power to the large banks of the great financial centers. The great banks of Wall Street are supporting it, however, because they know that the prosperity of the individual banker depends upon the general prosperity. Merchants and farmers and householders ought to support it for the same reason.

NOTE.—This catechism was written when the bankers were supporting the Monetary Bill of 1911 (popularly known as the Aldrich Bill) because it retained the control of the banking system and the currency to a very large extent in their hands; the same bankers are now opposing the Currency Bill advocated by President Wilson's Administration because the balance of control is placed in the hands of the Government. The two bills, so far as commercial and financial transactions are concerned, are not radically different in their operation. The Outlook believes in Government regulation and control, and therefore regards the Currency Bill of 1913 as an improvement upon the Monetary Bill of 1911.

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THE STRUGGLE BETWEEN BULGARIA AND HER FORMER ALLIES

The lamentable conflict between Bulgaria on the one hand and her recent allies in the war against Turkey on the other last week showed indications of cessation. A five days' armistice was agreed upon, and it is at least hoped that a peace treaty will follow. The situation is discussed editorially elsewhere in this issue of The Outlook. Here we print, as of significance and value in understanding the situation: first, a cablegram from leading men of Bulgaria to Theodore Roosevelt, received by The Outlook during Mr. Roosevelt's absence in Arizona; second, a cabled appeal from the treasurer of a Balkan fund in Sofia asking for American aid in distress; third, a letter from a Greek Vice-Consul in this country setting forth the Greek side of the controversy; and, fourth, a brief article called "King Ferdinand's Part."—THE EDITORS.

I—AN APPEAL FROM BULGARIA

Sofia, Bulgaria, July 29, 1913. By Cable.

The Hon. Theodore Roosevelt:

Dear Sir—Bulgaria, which for more than five centuries has struggled unceasingly against the wild Asiatic tribes of Turkey for the preservation of her religion, language, and nationality, to-day, after she has finally crushed and expelled to Asia the ever-uncultured Turk, finds herself exposed to even greater trials by her "allies" desirous of grasping the whole of Macedonia inhabited by Bulgarians. While the Bulgarian army at Tchataldja and Adrianople stood against the Turkish forces to protect the allied interests, our allies, forming a secret alliance against Bulgaria, stood at the Bulgarian boundary fortifying themselves for almost ten months; and soon after the signing of peace they declared that they rejected the ante-bellum treaty and did not propose to surrender the agreed-upon territory. Concentrating their armies at the Bulgarian frontiers, Greece, Servia, and Montenegro wanted to compel Bulgaria to yield to their claim; and before she could withdraw her army from Tchataldja and transport it to her western boundary they undertook an advance, on the 18th of June, into Bulgarian territory with all their army. As a sufficient proof of this early preparation and ill-intentioned advance stands the manifesto of King Peter issued in Belgrade undated to the military headquarters, to be dated by them at the time of the general advance. In order that they might provoke Bulgaria the Greeks at Salonika, with the purpose of disarming the Bulgarian garrison, fell upon them with quick-firing guns in the very heart of the city, killed most of them, and the rest were taken into captivity. They also slaughtered the entire male population there. When steps were taken by the Bulgarian Government to check those bloody incidents and to leave the dispute to the arbitration of the Russian Czar, as before agreed upon, Servia, Greece, and Montenegro declared war with manifestoes. At the same time they instigated Rumania and Turkey to take the same steps, and to invade the already devastated and sorrow-stricken territory with their armies. Realizing their inefficiency, these our allies of yesterday undertook with fire and sword to exterminate all the Bulgarian population in Macedonia. Realizing also the responsibility they owed to the civilized world, and at a time when Bulgaria was completely isolated, the Greeks and the Servians tried (and successfully) to libel the character of the Bulgarian soldier, accusing him of atrocities and maltreatment of his enemies and of the peaceful population, and also presenting Bulgaria as the disturber and creator of the present war.

Feeling sensitive because of all these base calumnies, we appeal to you as an advocate of the "square deal," soliciting your influential pen to expose the truth; we urgently request an international committee of investigation that will prove beyond the doubts of all that Bulgaria is not the one disturbing the peace; that Bulgaria was the one at the beginning of the hostilities to ask the intervention of the Powers; that Bulgaria was the first to respond to the advice of the Powers to send delegates to Nish, Servia; that her delegates have already been waiting there five or ten days for the Servian and Greek delegates, who are delaying with a clearly obvious purpose of continuing the hostilities.

This committee will also prove that the towns and villages in Macedonia already burned are purely Bulgarian, and their maltreated and slaughtered populations are also

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Bulgarian; that in Bulgaria we have more than 100,000 refugees, mostly women and children, who have been driven from their homes by the Grecians and Servians, and whose stories of fearful outrages and butchering will stir from the foundation the conscience of the civilized world. This committee will prove, consequently, that nowhere and never have been performed such deeds upon the non-combatant population by an army as the crimes committed by the Grecian army especially.

Apprising you with these facts and through you the upright American people, we implore your advocacy of such an international committee of investigation, that will expose the true authors of such previously unrecorded outrages.

Well-meaning Bulgaria must be vindicated. Will you help us? Every well-meaning Bulgarian must be vindicated. Will you help us?

Very respectfully yours,

MITROPOLGTE VASSILIY, Chairman of the Holy Synod; J. VAZOFF; Dr. S. KYROFF, Rector of the University; Pastor N. FURNAJIEFF, Representative of all the Protestant Churches; DOKCHO ATANASOFF.

II—AID NEEDED IN DISTRESS

Sofia, Bulgaria, July 31 1913. By Cable.

Colonel Roosevelt, New York:

Bulgaria asks aid and sympathy of generous Americans. Distress great. Thousands wounded. Soldiers and homeless refugees arriving daily. Most of the harvest will be lost. Many widows and orphans must be aided for months after demobilization.

DOKCHO ATANASOFF,
Treasurer Christian Herald Balkan Fund.

III—THE GREEK POINT OF VIEW

ROYAL VICE-CONSULATE OF GREECE
North Carolina and South Carolina
Wilmington, N. C.

Atlanta, Georgia, July 25, 1913.

Lyman Abbott,
Editor-in-Chief of The Outlook:

The new war was the climax of the dishonest policies of Bulgaria toward her former allies. Both Greece and Servia helped directly and indirectly in her war against Turkey. She did not only disregard this substantial help, but, engrossed by her much-exaggerated victories, she turned against her allies and tried by all the Oriental tricks of her politicians to defraud them.

From beginning to end Bulgaria has shown such a lack of foresight and decency that she lost the sympathies of her best friends even before the recent massacres.

It is untrue that Bulgaria alone has borne the brunt of the fighting with the Turks. You must not forget that Greece, during all that period of a treacherous armistice, has continued fighting in Epirus and in the Ægean, keeping at the same time Turkey from transporting troops from Asia Minor. Servia and Montenegro played also their rôle with gallantry and honor.

The pourparlers at London for the conclusion of a permanent peace failed to materialize it because of Dr. Daneff's ultra chauvinism. Bulgaria's greediness was of such a magnitude that naturally the allies resented it. The war being not one of conquest but of liberation of our unfortunate brethren, all the allies had to settle their territorial disputes in a spirit such as to avoid a fratricidal war. Bulgaria, with the assistance of the others, was in fact getting more territory than all the others put together, but, not satisfied with that, she wanted it all. While Sofia pretended to ignore what there was going on in Macedonia, her armies, acting under specific orders, were gradually and stubbornly invading territories captured by the Greeks, and insisted upon Servia's keeping a disloyal treaty.

The Greek Government made so many concessions in order to avoid a new war that it nearly risked its long-standing confidence of the Greek people.

Bulgaria's ambition was to take Salonika from the Greeks by the force of arms, and to that end she fortified all the surrounding strategical points. On June 19 a general assault against both Servia and Greece was ordered without a formal declaration of war, which was against the international laws.

Who can blame the Greeks and Servians for beating the Bulgars?

Who can dare call the Bulgars a brave

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nation and their officers efficient? Is it bravery to flee panic-stricken before the enemy and in their wild flight to pass through sword and fire, innocent women, children, priests, and old men? Have you not read the appalling descriptions of the new St. Bartholomew nights that have taken place at Nigrita, Demir-Hissar, Serres, Drama, etc.?

You may, of course, have your personal feelings for either of the Balkan States; yet, in the name of God and of humanity, you should not pay eulogies to a nation which in a single fortnight lost all its pride and its honor, not in the battlefield, but in the peaceful cities and villages it has destroyed.

Yours very truly,
DEMETRE VAFIADI, Consul of Greece.

IV—KING FERDINAND'S PART

BY E. F. BALDWIN

The peoples of the Balkan Peninsula represent fierce racial, religious, social, and economic jealousies. The peoples are naïve enough to be quickly inflamed to deeds of violence and even savagery by those who would excite their tempers on anything concerning their next-door neighbors. For centuries Turkey and certain of the European Powers have taken advantage of this. In proportion as they could set Bulgaria and Servia, for instance, by the ears, Bulgarian and Servian national interests were checked.

We have now an example, however, of how the Balkan governments themselves may stand in the way of the progress of the people. The example is, of course, that of Bulgaria. Here is a simple, honest, industrious, and conscientious race. In the progress, slow but sure, of such a race, the ambition of its ruler seemed to be justified—namely, that it would ultimately become the Prussia of the Balkan Peninsula. Other States might outstrip it in certain directions—Rumania, for instance, in rooting itself among the European Powers, or Greece in individual brilliancy, as shown in the constructive work of a Venezelos. But in staying power, in reserved force, the Bulgars are justly notable, and in the long run that is the quality that counts.

To this people came a new ruler—a foreigner, Prince Ferdinand of Coburg, really an Orleans prince, for his mother was the astute and indomitable Princess Clementine of France, perhaps the most remarkable member of the royal house displaced by Napoleon III. Her ambition and perseverance were even compared to those of Catherine of Russia and Elizabeth of England. Her son inherits these qualities. But it may be questioned, one thinks, whether he has an equal amount of wisdom to go with them. Succeeding the rule of the beloved Prince Alexander of Battenberg, and especially that of Premier Stambulov, the greatest man modern Bulgaria has yet produced, Prince Ferdinand was long regarded askance by many. His position with them was not improved by his willingness to change his religion when it suited a political exigency. But the Bulgars liked his perseverance, and it seemed to triumph along many lines. Fortunately, the influence of Robert College, an American institution at Constantinople, where many Bulgarians have been educated, helped the Government. When the war with Turkey came, Bulgaria seemed the strongest of the Balkan States in every respect.

She has now fallen from that high estate, and chiefly because her ruler was not as wise as he is ambitious. When finally he changed his princely rank to a kingly rank he was not satisfied with the title of King—he would be a Czar. When, by the Peace of London, Bulgaria received two-thirds of the territory taken from Turkey, he was again unsatisfied—he would have three-fourths. Because of this ambition the whole Balkan Peninsula has been again drenched with blood, and, what is worse, there have been atrocities rivaling those other "Bulgarian atrocities" of 1876. Because of an insensate ambition three hundred million dollars has been added to the billion which the war with Turkey may have cost. Because of this ambition the ideal of Balkan federation has been eclipsed. Will it remain eclipsed? One does not believe it. The basic qualities of a people are mighty, and must in the end prevail.

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THE BINGHAMTON TRAGEDY

WILL THE LEGISLATURE ACT?

BY INIS WEED

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE OF THE OUTLOOK

Miss Weed, who has made a special study of industrial conditions in New York State, visited Binghamton immediately after the disastrous factory fire, at the request of The Outlook, in order that its readers might have first-hand information both as to the facts and as to the defects in legislation which make such tragedies as the Binghamton fire possible.—THE EDITORS.

IT was half-past two when the fire alarm rang long and fiercely above the whir and roar of work in the Binghamton Clothing Factory with its 111 employees. Some of the seventy girls on the top floor rose instantly from their machines; others not so quickly.

The fire drill, although it had been made the last time before in two minutes and three seconds, was not popular, for several reasons. It took time from the girls' work. Time is money when one works under the "piece" system. It was embarrassing, too, going down on the public street in work clothes. "Another of those old fire drills! I'm not going to the street as I am," exclaimed one girl. Also, there was the fatigue of three flights of stairs to be added to that of the day's work. Above all, there was not a sense of personal responsibility on the part of the workers such as one finds in the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, where the workers demand and secure higher standards of fire safety than those required by the State.

One of the employees on opening the door of a chute said she saw smoke; but even that did not alarm some of the workers, because during a previous drill one of the girls had suggested that some one should start a smudge "to see how they would act." Then, too, the fire alarm gave only one prolonged, continuous ring, and the employees had been trained to rise from their machines and push back their chairs on the first ring, then to start on the second ring. So, for one reason and another, part of their number did not start quite so quickly as usual.

"The smoke and the heat was frightful," said one girl afterwards, "but we hurried down two flights of stairs. We saw the flames blazing up through the lowest flight. I ran down as many steps as I could, then threw my dress over my head and jumped over the fire. I felt myself falling, and it seemed as though I landed on a pile of girls. After that I must have lost consciousness."

Once out, the workers saw the building all afire. They could not see the hell upon the stairs where girls were piling down upon each other, choking, frenzied, burning alive; but they saw a group crazed by burns rush across the street and plunge into the depths of Chenango River, and one girl, a mass of wind-fanned flames, run madly down four blocks before she could be caught in her death throes.

The last girls in the third and fourth floor lines had rushed screaming back into the work-rooms from which spectators saw them pouring out on the fire-escapes. They began climbing down the steep, narrow treads, only to hesitate at the leap before them. The ladder stopped at a height that necessitated a daring plunge to the pavement below. Before those ahead could act, the frantic line pushing down from above drove them to the ground, crushed, maimed, some silent, others groaning. Those above who had been stopped by the momentary block below had climbed madly back up the ladders.

In twenty-three minutes after the alarm on that windy, sunshiny summer afternoon there remained only a fiery hole where had stood a busy factory.

It had taken five minutes for the fire message to reach headquarters, because an alarm from another part of the city was being rung in over the wire. People had managed to rescue a few victims from the heap before the heat drove them back, where they stood, agonized by the suffering before them, tears streaming down their faces. In the few minutes that elapsed before the arrival of the Fire Department the building was doomed.

When Sidney Colstock, sent from New York by the Committee on Safety, arrived that morning, she ascertained these facts: Binghamton regarded this shop as one of

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its model factories. It was a building with sixteen-inch brick walls that had stood twenty years without a crack. The workers, most of them Scotch-Irish, and many of them middle-aged women who had been in the employ of the company for years, were well paid. Good feeling prevailed between the employers and the employees. The factory complied with the existing fire laws, and had been examined by one of the State factory inspectors within the last few weeks. The heating, lighting, stairways, fire-escapes, the daily sweeping up and care of rubbish, the standing pails of water in case of fire, had all been approved.

How did the fire start? The fire was discovered blazing in some rolls of plush and buckram stored on shelves above the lower part of the first staircase. Smoking was prohibited, but the most probable explanation seems to be that an employee had thrown down a lighted match or cigarette butt as he passed up the stairs.

Meanwhile, the city was demanding a scapegoat. Was it an employee? Was it the employer? Was it the city fire department? Was it the labor inspector? Was it the head of the State Department of Labor?

Every individual protested his innocence. No guilty employee could be found. The employer, overwhelmed with grief, said that he had promptly taken every fire precaution required by the inspector. The latter, it was found, had required every provision demanded by the State fire laws. The head of the city fire department proved he had done his best. The State fire marshal explained that he was responsible only for drills and the enforcement of regulations against smoking. An official from the State Department of Labor said that the disaster pointed to the need of an official head for his bureau. The press represented Governor Sulzer as agitatedly laying the blame of the fire on Murphy, of the Tammany tribe, who had been blocking his successive appointments of a head for the State Labor Bureau. Binghamton was bewildered by this babel of protest, advice, and cross-accusation.

Each person was quite right in protesting his individual innocence and equally wrong when he tried to blame any of the others. I quote the final findings of the Committee on Safety:

> Although the factory complied with the existing labor law, there was a lamentable absence of provisions for the safety of the occupants of the building.
>
> Because this absence of such provisions is common in factories throughout the State, and because in Binghamton they have caused a frightful loss of life, it is obvious that the existing law is wholly inadequate and that there is immediate need, not only for the factory laws passed at the recent session of the Legislature, but for even more stringent requirements.
>
> The chief elements of danger in the Binghamton building were:
>
> (1) There was but one stairway.
>
> (2) The single stairway was not inclosed in a fireproof partition which would have protected it from flames and made it a safe exit for all the people in the building.
>
> (3) There was a large number of openings, shafts, etc., between floors, which expedited the spread of flames from floor to floor.
>
> (4) Reliance for emergency exit was placed upon one outside iron fire-escape, which, although allowed by the labor law, is a type of exit, shown by the experience of many fires, which more often than not
>
> (*a*) warps under heat;
>
> (*b*) collapses under a heavy load;
>
> (*c*) is too small to accommodate more than six or seven persons per floor;
>
> (*d*) becomes little less than a roasting-pen for people attempting to use it, since the flames come out of the non-fireproof windows.
>
> (5) There were seventy people on the top floor of the building at the time of the fire, and usually about eighty worked there. The one open stairway and flimsy fire-escape which constituted the means of exit from that floor were together incapable of accommodating more than about forty persons, and this overcrowding or excessive occupancy on the top floor placed the people there in constant danger.
>
> Of these five clearly established life hazards, the chief cause of death at the time of the fire proved to be the lack of any properly constructed, protected, and safeguarded exit.
>
> Open wooden stairways and exterior fire-escapes have long been recognized as unsafe and certain to cause disasters if any considerable number of people must depend upon them for emergency escape. Experienced persons who have watched the fires of many years testified before the Wagner State Factory Investigating Commission that more often than not the fire goes up the stairways; more often than not the fire-escapes give way.

Evidently we all of us are guilty of criminal negligence in that we have not stood behind the fire experts who, since the fearful Newark and Triangle tragedies, have been working for better fire laws.

After those terrible fires certain private organizations and individuals formed the Committee on Safety to study the problem of fire prevention for factory workers. At the suggestion of this organization the Governor appointed the Wagner State Factory Investigating Commission with powers of

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investigation and recommendation. Together this last winter, after two years of expert examination and study, they drew up a fire protection bill, an important clause of which is requirement of inclosed fireproof stairways for all factory buildings over two stories in height.

Then the "up-State" factory men swarmed down upon the authors of the bill, fighting for the exemption of existing low buildings, that is, those from two to six stories in height. At the same time they suffered a plague of locusts from New York realty men who wanted the same thing. Rather than lose the whole bill in the Legislature, as seemed imminent, through the combined efforts of "up-State" factory owners and New York realty interests, Mr. Elkus, counsel for the Committee, finally agreed to trim the bill to four stories. Better an entering wedge than none at all, was the philosophy of the reformers, who kept up a sleepless fight for the shorn bill, led by Frances Perkins, the executive head of the Committee on Safety. Her generalship had been recognized the year before when she got through the Legislature the Nine-Hour Bill affecting 400,000 women and children.

Attack centered on her and on the Committee of Safety. But the Committee had its gaze fixed on the thousands of women and girls daily risking their lives in these buildings. The bill finally became a law, with an amendment exempting from the fireproof-inclosed-stairway provision not only four-story factory buildings, but also five to six story factory buildings, under conditions not specifically stated by the law. This law is to take effect October 1, 1913. The Binghamton Clothing Factory, it should be remembered, was a four-story building.

The Committee on Safety pointed out these facts to the Governor after the Binghamton fire, and told him that the leader of each house had promised to try to secure the repeal of this exemption if he would send a special message enabling them to take action on the labor law. They felt sure that, with the Binghamton horror fresh in their memory, the legislators could be relied on to say, "Expense doesn't count." The Governor, however, said he was not clear in his mind that fireproof staircases were the best protection.

On the 29th the Committee on Safety and a committee of influential citizens, joined by representatives of the Allied Real Estate Interests, who have throughout helped in the struggle for better fire laws, laid down their work and went up to Albany. They submitted expert evidence before the Governor that the State must require the following protection for factory workers: either (1) inclosed fireproof stairway in every factory building, or (2) a fire wall with fireproof sliding doors running up through the entire building, so that the half in which the fire starts may be cut off from the other half on each floor. The Committee asked for immediate action. The Governor approved their evidence, and said he was ready to go even further than their suggestions, but insisted that he could do nothing now, as the Legislature was not in session. The Legislature, however, insists that it is in session; that it is merely taking a recess and will be in Albany August 11.

As the new legislative session does not begin until January, 1914, it is important that our lawmakers should meet and repeal this exemption. Otherwise vast numbers of workers will be exposed for five months more to the same fate as that of the Binghamton sufferers. Moreover, all owners of factory buildings requiring any change to meet the existing law before October 1 should not be exposed to the necessity of overhauling their property again in a few months to meet a second enactment.

The Saturday after the fire, in Union Square in New York City, as the thousands of workers poured out of the factories, they held a vast mass-meeting to appeal for an amendment of their present fire-protection law.

It took an Iroquois Theater fire to improve the safety of theaters. It took a Titanic disaster to improve the safety of vessels. It took a Newark fire and a Triangle fire to bring New York State's fire legislation to its present inefficiency. Now fifty-eight women have sacrificed their lives. By so doing they have proved the untruth of the statements made to the Legislature that human lives could not be destroyed by fire in low buildings. The present law was framed on this false assumption. Will the Legislature act to correct this fatal blunder? Will the Governor enable them to act by sending a special message?

Binghamton, New York.

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SUMMER VESPER SERMONS

THE TWO SONS

BY LYMAN ABBOTT

But what think ye? A certain man had two sons; and he came to the first, and said, Son, go work to-day in my vineyard. He answered and said, I will not: but afterward he repented, and went. And he came to the second, and said likewise. And he answered and said, I go, sir: and went not. Whether of them twain did the will of his father? They say unto him, The first. Jesus saith unto them, Verily I say unto you, That the publicans and the harlots go into the kingdom of God before you. For John came unto you in the way of righteousness, and ye believed him not: but the publicans and the harlots believed him: and ye, when ye had seen it, repented not afterward, that ye might believe him.—Matthew xxi., 28-32.

CHRIST came teaching religion. What kind of religion did he teach? On what did he, by his ministry, lay emphasis? Was it on the gathering for public worship? Was it on Sabbath observances? Or was it on loving one's neighbor? He laid down certain tests of character. What were they? Was the ideal man the man that went out from life and hid in the wilderness and there devoted himself to years of prayer and devotion? Not at all. When the rich young ruler came running to him and said, "What must I do to inherit eternal life?" and Christ rehearsed to him the second table of the law, and the young man replied, "I have obeyed all these from my youth up," Christ did not say, "Add vigil to vigil, watch to watch, service to service." He said, "Sell what you have and give to the poor"—philanthropy. When he selected a human character and held it up before men as an ideal—the only time, I think, in all his ministry that he put an ideal character before others for their imitation—and said to his auditors, "Go, thou, and do likewise," what sort of a character did he sketch? He selected a Samaritan, a heretic, whose creed was wrong and whose theology and ritual Christ at another time condemned, and he pictured him as one who carried comfort and help with his own hand to a fellow-man oppressed and suffering; and he said, This man is better than the orthodox priest and the orthodox Levite that went by on the other side. When he presented the only picture he ever presented in his life of an individual in the torments of the damned, what sort of man was it? A man that disbelieved a creed? A man that turned his back on the church? A man that violated the rituals of religion? Not at all. A man whose sin was this: that he lived in indifference to his fellow-men, was clothed in fine linen, and fared sumptuously every day, and did not care for the pauper lying at his door, who fed on the crusts that the more charitable servants carried out to him, and whose sores were licked by the more pitying dogs. When Jesus gave the only picture he ever gave of the Judgment Day, and portrayed men arrayed before him, separated as a shepherd divideth his sheep from the goats—the sheep on the right hand, the goats on the left—what was the test and measure of character then? These on the right, the men who have professed an orthodox faith, the men who have been sound in their theological belief, the men who have always been in their sanctuary on Sunday morning? And these on the left, the outcasts, the unbelievers, the infidels, the atheists, the skeptics? Not at all. These on the right, those that have seen men hungry and have fed them; naked, and clothed them; shelterless, and sheltered them; in trouble, and companioned them. And these on the left, those that have been oblivious to the wants and woes of human nature. The test which the Lord Jesus Christ applied when he thus separated the sheep from the goats was a test of philanthropy, not one of creed or of ritual.

Turn from his teaching to his practice. What was it? He stood up to preach in the synagogue where his childhood was spent, and this was his sermon: "The Spirit of the Lord is upon me, because he hath anointed me to proclaim glad tidings to the poor; he hath sent me to heal the broken-hearted, to proclaim deliverance to the captives, and recovering of sight to the blind, to set at liberty them that are bruised, to proclaim the acceptable year of the Lord." And he closed the book and began to say to them, "This day is this scripture fulfilled in your ears." This, he said, is what I have come for: I look out upon the world and I see industry manacled; I come to break the chains and set the enslaved free. I see men blinded with ignorance; I come to touch their eyes, that they may see. I see men weeping, unsheltered and uncared for; I come to bring comfort to the comfortless. And this he did.

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True, he attended the synagogues and the temple service; but the work of his life was feeding the hungry, healing the sick, and ministering to men suffering under every form of physical, social, and moral disease and disorder.

I do not believe he was a mere man doing good to his fellow-man. I count him the manifestation in human life of the infinite, the invisible, and the eternal God. I bow before him, and look up into his face and cry out to him, "My Lord and my God!" He came to reveal the character of God. What kind of character did he reveal? A character manifested in one who, though he thought it not robbery to be equal with God, emptied himself of reputation, and gave himself wholly to the blessing of men by his life of service and self-sacrifice. Not only is Jesus Christ the greatest philanthropist of human history, but the God whom Jesus Christ revealed is the infinite and eternal philanthropist of all time and all eternity. For what is philanthropy? The love of man. And the one central and grand revelation of Christ's presence on the earth was this: God so loved the world of men that he gave himself for its redemption.

Are you a Christian? Do not ask your creed, your prayer-book, your church record, your communion table, or your baptismal font. Do you love your neighbor? Are you trying to serve him, to save him, to lift him up? The mother who is trying to make her child like Christ; the old maid—that much-abused old maid—who is giving her life in loving service, and getting no return in the joys of maternity; the merchant who recognizes industry to be a part of God's great scheme of benevolence, and grows wearied and worn because his store is the appointed place where he can serve his fellow-man whom God has appointed him to serve; the politician, so called, who in his place is attempting to serve his country; and the preacher and the teacher who, where God has put them, are trying to make the world wiser and better and happier and richer for having lived in it—these are the men that are disciples learning of Christ, and followers imitating him.

SCREWS IN BLUE PAPER, AND OUR TRADE WITH CHINA

BY GEORGE KENNAN

SOME years ago a Chinese wholesale dealer came to an American commercial agent in one of the treaty ports of China and expressed a desire to place an order for a large quantity of assorted screws. He examined samples, inquired prices, and seemed to be satisfied with both. He objected, however, to the color of the heavy paper or cardboard in which the screws were packed. It happened to be brown, and he wanted blue.

"What difference does the color make?" said the dealer, impatiently. "It's screws you're buying, not paper; and these are the best screws that are made. You'll throw the package away when you use the contents; why can't you throw away a brown package as well as a blue one?"

The Chinese, however, insisted that he must have blue paper.

"But we don't put up screws in blue paper," said the irritated agent; "nobody does. You're not going to use a screw-driver on the paper; what difference does the color of it make?

The Chinese could not, or would not, explain his preference for blue, and when the agent intimated that he could take the goods as they were or leave them, he left them, and went to a German merchant in another part of the town. There also the screws were in brown paper packages.

"Blue paper?" said the German, interrogatively, when the Chinese had explained his wants. "Certainly! I'll give them to you in any color you like; but you'll have to wait a little. We don't carry blue-paper screws in stock, but I'll have them put up for you if you're not in a hurry." The Chinese said he could wait, and the order was booked.

This commercial anecdote, with many others of a similar character which are current in the markets of the Far East, will

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serve to explain, perhaps, in part, our failure to compete successfully with the Germans and the Japanese in the struggle for commercial supremacy in the Orient. That we do so fail is evident to any one who makes a study of the subject on the ground. The foreign trade of China amounted, in 1911, to $552,000,000, but the share of the United States was only $53,000,000, or a little more than one-tenth. The number of foreign merchants engaged in business in China in 1911 was 2,863, but less than four per cent of them were Americans, while more than ninety per cent were Englishmen, Germans, or Japanese. In many wealthy and prosperous Chinese provinces America has no commercial representatives at all. Szechuen, for example, is as big as Texas, and has a population about equal to that of Germany. It imports every year goods which pay an entrance duty of $14,000,000, and it offers commercial opportunities which, in the opinion of good judges, are "as promising as those presented by the whole Empire of Japan;" and yet our direct trade with this province amounts to nothing, and our only representatives there are a few missionaries and teachers. Even in parts of China where we have merchants or commercial agents, and where we do make an effort to get business, we are losing ground—or at least are not gaining ground as rapidly as are the Germans and the Japanese. Such is the case, for example, in Manchuria. Five or six years ago we had a commanding lead there in the cotton goods trade; but year by year the Japanese have been taking the market away from us. In 1907 they sold there only 75,000 yards of cotton cloth (shirtings, sheetings, drills, jeans, etc.), but in the course of three years they increased their sales one-hundred-fold, and in 1911 disposed of 7,242,000 yards, while our own sales suffered an almost proportionate decline. According to our consular officers the same tendencies prevail in the Republic as a whole. Everywhere "the falling off of imports from the United States and the increase of imports from Japan proceed almost *pari passu*." One naturally inquires what are the reasons for our failure to extend more rapidly our Chinese trade, and why are we unable to compete successfully with our enterprising rivals the Germans and the Japanese? Are we inferior to the latter in business ability, or do they enjoy natural advantages which give them a stronger position in the Chinese markets than any that we can expect to attain?

In my efforts to get answers to these questions I learned from consuls, merchants, and other competent observers in the Far East a number of facts which seem to me interesting, and which explain in part the success of Englishmen, Germans, and Japanese in getting or controlling Chinese trade. In the first place, Europeans and Japanese pay more attention to the Chinese markets than we do. Our merchants and manufacturers have such a vast field of business enterprise at home that they are comparatively indifferent to opportunities abroad, and especially to opportunities presented in remote fields that are difficult of access. "We get along very comfortably," they say, "without the trade of Szechuen; why should we bother with it, even if it does offer opportunities as promising as those presented by the whole Empire of Japan? One of these days, when we need it, we'll go for it; but just at present we are satisfied with home and near-by markets." But when our business men get ready to "go for" these promising fields in western China, they are likely to find them preoccupied. The contracts for the great Chengtu arsenal in Szechuen—one of the finest in the Republic—have already been placed in Germany; the plant of the Government printing establishment has been ordered in Japan; the electric light equipment and the machinery for the Government brick works have been furnished by Germany and England; and the great steel bridge on the Tibetan road is being erected by French engineers. American teachers and missionaries and returned Chinese students from the United States create a demand for Western things, and then that demand is satisfied by the commercial enterprise of Great Britain, France, Germany, and Japan.

That which is taking place in Szechuen is also taking place, to a greater or less extent, in all parts of the awakening Chinese Republic. Has any American ever thought of the chance to extend trade which is afforded by the recent change in the educational system of China? The inhabitants of that country have always heretofore been neglectful of the natural sciences—particularly physics, chemistry, geology, and electricity. They are now alive, however, to their importance, and in the tens of thousands of modern schools that will shortly be opened, there will be a general and urgent demand for appara-

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tus and appliances to be used in teaching these neglected branches of knowledge. This demand the Japanese have anticipated and are prepared to meet. When I was last in Kyoto, I chanced to encounter a group of Chinese teachers and students who were making an inspection of educational appliances and material in one of the largest manufactories in Japan. The collection of objects to be used in teaching was the largest and most complete that I have ever seen, and the Chinese were devoting to it at least one whole day—possibly a number of days. I happened to see the exhibition of apparatus intended to illustrate the laws of light and electricity, and their application to the industrial arts. It took place in a specially prepared and darkened room, and was so varied and brilliant as to surprise even an observer from the West. The polarization of light, spectroscopic analysis, the phenomena of induction, wireless telegraphy, Roentgen rays, X-ray photography, and a dozen other discoveries and inventions of recent years, were shown with really extraordinary intelligence and skill. Every experiment succeeded, every piece of apparatus worked perfectly, and it was evident that the educated and comprehending Chinese were deeply interested and profoundly impressed. When these teachers and students returned to their homes, and the question of equipping schools or colleges came up, they naturally said: "Why should we send to America for the things that we need? We can get them in Japan." And the Japanese manufacturer secured the trade. He certainly deserved it, because the display of educational appliances in the exhibition rooms of his factory surpassed anything of the kind that I had ever seen in the United States. The collection, he told me, comprised something like one hundred thousand different things used in object-teaching, and its range was from birds' nests and the bacilli of tuberculosis to wireless-telegraph installations and models of battle-ships.

A few months later I made a visit to the public and military schools of Paotingfu, in the Chinese province of Chili. Many of them were already well equipped for the teaching of science, and in the medical and technical colleges especially I was shown chemical and electrical apparatus, microscopes, surgical instruments, physiological models and charts, sterilizing apparatus, materials for biological and bacteriological research, drugs, medicines, natural history collections, and quantities of other things used in the instruction and training of students. Nearly the whole of this pedagogical equipment came from England, Germany, or Japan. Now, it might not be worth while for American merchants and manufacturers to compete for a share in the educational-material trade of Paotingfu; but the capital of Chili is only one of hundreds of Chinese towns in which modern schools are being established, and the demand for pedagogical equipment in a nation of 350,000,000 people, which is making a complete transformation of its whole educational system, would seem to be important enough to deserve serious attention and consideration.

Indifference to opportunities, however, is not the only reason for the comparatively slow growth of our Chinese trade. An equally cogent one is to be found in our failure to send to the Far East properly equipped commercial representatives. We do not train men especially for that field, and our merchants and agents there are greatly hampered—at least at first—by their ignorance of the language, geography, and markets of the country, and the needs, tastes, and prejudices of its people. A man may be alert, enterprising, and energetic, and may have had a business training that fits him admirably for New York and Chicago, or even for London, Paris, and Berlin; but when he goes out to Shanghai, Tientsin, or Hankow, he finds himself confronted by difficulties and obstacles for which he is wholly unprepared. He has no acquaintance with the written or spoken language of the country; he is compelled to do business through a Chinese interpreter or comprador, who may or may not be trustworthy; he knows little of Chinese currency, exchanges, markets, or methods of transportation, and still less of the customs, traditions, preferences, and seemingly absurd whims of Chinese purchasers; and the training that he has had in America does not qualify him to deal intelligently and successfully with the unfamiliar problems presented to him. In his new and strange environment he has almost everything to learn. If, in these circumstances, he had none but American competitors, his ignorance and inexperience would not matter so much; but he encounters in the Oriental field traders from Germany and Japan who have all the local knowledge and experience that he lacks. The Germans have had, for the last fifteen

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years, an excellent school of Oriental languages, and they offer a special training to all young men who wish to qualify themselves for work in the Chinese field. The Japanese are already more or less familiar with the written language of China, because their own ideographs are of Chinese origin; but they have established in Shanghai an advanced commercial school in which students may learn the Mandarin or spoken language, and at the same time acquire a thorough and accurate knowledge of Chinese markets, customs, and business methods. The special training thus given to German and Japanese merchants makes them particularly formidable competitors, and explains in part the pre-eminence that they have gained in the Chinese field. The American may equal them in enterprise and excel them in sheer intellectual ability; but he lacks the expert knowledge which they have of the country, the people, and the conditions of the trade.

There is another reason, however, for the failure of the American merchant to hold his own in competition with the German or the Japanese, and that is his unwillingness to humor his Oriental customers in matters of detail that he regards as unimportant. He is apt to take a somewhat contemptuous and intolerant attitude toward their tastes, prejudices, or caprices, and to think that his methods and standards should necessarily be theirs. Many of the requirements of the Chinese purchaser seem to be trivial or childish, and the business man from the West has little patience with them.

Some years ago a Chinese wholesaler, who had been accustomed to get his annual supply of cotton sheeting from an American firm, declined to renew his order for the reason that a slight change had been made in the "Flying Dragon" brand, or trademark, with which the cloth was stamped. The artist employed by the manufacturer had tried to improve the design, and make it look a little better, by changing one of the ornamental flourishes. The alteration was so slight that the representative of the firm in China had not even noticed it; but it immediately attracted the attention of the Oriental purchaser, who declined to take sheeting bearing that "chop."

"But it's the very same goods that you've had before!" said the American agent. "There may be a little change in the trademark, although I hadn't noticed it; but suppose there is—what difference does an extra curlicue in the dragon's tail make in the quality of the cloth? I give you my word that there's no change in that."

For some occult reason, however, the apparently insignificant alteration in the trademark impaired the value of the sheeting in the Chinese market, and the Oriental wholesaler would not take it.

These, perhaps, are extreme illustrations of Chinese conservatism or superstition; but there are many Oriental whims, fashions, or caprices which strike the American business man as childish or absurd, and which he is inclined to ignore or treat with contempt. The Japanese and the German are more tolerant, the former because he understands the Oriental mind better, and the latter because he desires to make sales, and does not care how absurd or unreasonable the requirements of his customers are, provided he can satisfy them. If they want screws put up in sky-blue paper spangled with golden stars, or a "chop" consisting of a flying dragon with three convolutions in its tail instead of four, their wishes are to be treated with respectful consideration, and to be satisfied if possible.

Not long ago a Chinese wholesaler came to an American commercial agent in Shanghai with some samples of sewing-machine needles, and asked if he could get a gross or two of them for some of his customers in the interior. The agent looked at the needles, found that they belonged to an old and abandoned type of American machine, and then told the inquirer that it would be impossible to get such needles, for the reason that they were out of date—the machines that used them were no longer made. The Chinese then went to a German dealer in hardware and made the same inquiry. The German, too, told the wholesaler that the needles were out of date, and that nobody had them for sale; but that if he could wait a few months he thought he could have a few gross of them made. The Chinese replied that he could wait, if necessary, but that he must have the needles if possible, because hundreds of sewing-machines of that old type had been sold to customers in the interior years before, and had become useless for lack of fresh needles. The German had the needles made, and eventually sold them to the wholesaler at a direct pecuniary loss; but when, a few months later, the appreciative and grateful Chinese wanted a large quantity of assorted hardware, he went directly to the dealer who had shown

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a disposition to be obliging, and placed an order which far more than covered the German's loss on the specially ordered needles.

Although the merchants of Great Britain long ago acquired, and still retain, the lion's share of the Chinese trade, our most skillful and resourceful competitors in that field hereafter will probably be the Germans and the Japanese. They are likely to surpass us, partly because their men are better trained than ours, and partly because they are more enterprising in taking advantage of opportunities and more ready to adapt their merchandise and their methods to the peculiar requirements of the Chinese market and the tastes or preferences of Oriental customers. In an address delivered at the conference on Japanese-American relations held in Clark University a little more than a year ago, Mr. Ichinomiya, manager of the New York branch of the Yokohama Specie Bank, said: "In pushing foreign trade the most important qualification is knowledge of the language and customs of the people that are met with in that trade. Wants and requirements of a local and particular character must from time to time be investigated and studied, so as to leave no changes unnoted. In the trade with the Orient, especially with China, where a vast future is in store, it is not so easy a matter to meet the requirements. In this respect I can safely say that the Japanese, owing to their geographical, racial, and linguistic advantages, are the people best fitted to acquire the foremost position. Next to the Japanese will come the Germans. If you will notice how the German merchants, both in China and at home, are working along the line I have indicated, you will not wonder that they have made such remarkable progress in the Oriental trade during the last few years. They are studying every method of pushing their commerce in eastern Asia. Some of the German salesmen have gone so far as to adopt the Chinese dress and Chinese queue. You are aware how the Chinese cling to their calendar. The Germans have noticed this, and never fail to mark their goods according to it. If, for instance, it is the year of The Horse, the Germans print the figure of a horse on the goods to be sold to the Chinese that year. So, in what might seem trivial matters, they seek the good will of their customers. These things are perhaps difficult for Occidental manufacturers to understand; but unless they do try to understand them they can never hope to gain and retain a strong foothold in the Oriental trade. Chinese habits and traits, in particular, are difficult for Western people to comprehend, but so long as China is talked of as one of the world's greatest markets, intending traders will have to surmount these difficulties in one way or another."

Many American merchants and manufacturers, who would be glad to extend their Far Eastern trade, are unable to get trained and competent agents to represent them in China, or neglect such opportunities as those presented by Szechuen on account of the expense of sending a man to a field so remote on the chance of establishing a profitable business there.

In an address delivered at the Pan-American Congress in Washington about two years ago, Mr. Huntington Wilson, late Assistant Secretary of State, referred to these difficulties and suggested several methods of dealing with them. "It is of course absurd," he said, "for this country to try to compete, without sending out, as others do, trained commercial travelers, who are acquainted with the languages, and who know how to get things before different peoples in the most agreeable and therefore the most successful manner. Naturally, every firm cannot have a commercial representative traveling in every country; but I fail to see why different people in the same line—for instance, shoes, or cotton goods—could not combine and send trained agents to the different countries on some arrangement to divide the business among themselves. There is so much opportunity at home that it is not easy to get proper men for agents, but it has occurred to me that the surplus of men who pass the consular examination would be excellent material. They are obliged to know foreign languages; they have to know a good deal about business affairs to pass; and it is the rule of the Department to keep fifty or sixty more than there are vacancies on the eligible list."

Candidates for consular positions in China are not required, I think, to pass an examination in the Chinese language, and therefore might not make the best possible commercial representatives; but Mr. Wilson was referring particularly to the trade of the Western hemisphere. His suggestion, however, with regard to the combination of dealers in the same line of trade is as applicable to China as to South America. Half a dozen Ameri-

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can manufacturers might jointly employ a competent agent to look up business in China for them all—or, at least, to explore little-known but promising Chinese fields and report upon the opportunities presented by them. This would not be unduly expensive to any single member of the syndicate, and it might result in the opening of profitable markets in regions where we now have no trade at all. Something like this was done by Great Britain in the case of the Blackburn Commission, and the information obtained was of the greatest possible value to English cotton manufacturers and merchants. The only obstacle in the way of American dealers who would resort to this method of extending trade is the Sherman Law. A year or two ago a number of manufacturers in the same line of business proposed to try this plan, and agreed to share the expense of sending agents to China to represent them all and look up business for them all. They abandoned the idea, however, upon being advised by their legal counsel that this might look like the organization of a trust to take advantage of competitors in the Oriental field, and that it might, under the Sherman Law, get them into trouble with the Government. Smith, Jones, and Robinson, severally, cannot afford to send an agent to China to look up business on the mere chance of finding it, and they do not dare, jointly, to share the expense of the experiment, because the Government may prosecute them as a trust. So we lose opportunities of which we might take advantage, and the Germans and Japanese utilize them. If, instead of backing syndicate loans to the Chinese Republic, our Government should free our exporters from this dread of the Sherman Law, would it not do more than it is now doing for the extension of our Chinese trade?

There can be little doubt, I think, that the Chinese people are undergoing a transformation which must, in the near future, profoundly affect both the nature and the volume of their foreign commerce. Following the example of the Japanese, they are already adopting Western systems of education, Western transportation methods, Western discoveries and inventions in the shape of telephones, electric lights and trams, Western machinery, and even, to some extent, Western dress. As they become more and more enlightened, and more and more familiar with the civilization of the Occident, the number and variety of their needs will steadily and proportionately increase, and many, if not most, of their new wants can be satisfied only by the importation of foreign goods. A rapidly developing market of this kind certainly deserves attention and consideration, on account of its future possibilities. It is important already, but it will become still more important in future years. As Consul-General Anderson, of Hongkong, has said in a recent report, "The Chinese field offers good and sometimes splendid opportunities for the sale of modern products of almost every description, but in the sale of such goods the competition of the world must be met."

Unfortunately, our merchants and manufacturers, with comparatively few exceptions, not only fail to meet the competition of the English, the Germans, and the Japanese, but show little regard for the most elementary conditions of successful business. They do not send competent representatives into the field, nor keep adequate stocks of goods in interior markets, nor study the tastes and preferences of their Oriental customers, nor meet the requirements of the trade in size, form, or color of package, even when such requirements are known. Their attitude toward the whole field in one of comparative indifference. The only American corporation that has a really scientific and effective selling organization in China is the Standard Oil Company; and the only American goods that are sold there in anything like satisfactory quantities are kerosene, cotton cloth, flour, lumber, tobacco, and manufactures of iron or steel. All of these taken together amount to only about seventeen million dollars a year, or less than five cents per capita of the Chinese population.

Our merchants and manufacturers may think that they can easily pick up the Chinese trade when they need it; but our late Assistant Secretary of State more than once called attention to the fact that "although foreign markets may not be very essential or even very important to us to-day, if they are still to be there when they are necessary for our economic existence, we must secure a foothold now. The open door of commercial opportunity will not stay open if no one goes in and out. Your competitors will be so intrenched that when you are ready to go into the foreign field the strong habit of placing orders in other countries will have made conditions that will render it infinitely difficult, if not impossible, to get in."

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WHY DO WE LAUGH?

BY H. ADDINGTON BRUCE

PICTURE to yourself a familiar scene—the interior of a theater crowded with people. On the stage the persons of the play move to and fro, speaking their lines. Presently a slight change is made in the current of the dialogue, and, presto! the spectators who have been so quietly listening and watching become weirdly agitated. Their features are distorted in strange grimaces, they throw back their heads and give utterance to abrupt, explosive, unmelodious noises. Even their bodies take part in the amazing commotion.

Something "funny" has just been said by one of the actors, and those who have heard it are responding by an outburst of "laughter."

Recall likewise the equally familiar picture of a huge circus tent with its bewildering array of equipment for the performance of feats of strength and daring, surrounded by tier upon tier of seats filled with expectant holiday-makers. The entertainment is about to begin; from an entrance come the blaring strains of a brass band, and a long, gayly bedecked procession circles slowly before the gaping throng. At the end of the procession are half a dozen men of uncouth gait and bizarre appearance, their faces whitened and spotted, queer conical caps on their heads, and wearing enormous shapeless garments as white and spotted as their faces.

These men say nothing—they simply go through all sorts of foolish antics. But at the mere sight of them the same uproar of discordant sounds fills the air, the spectators, like those of the theater and with even greater vehemence, uniting in a very bedlam of guffawings.

Pass, finally, to the open street, alive with men and women hurrying to their work. Some one has carelessly dropped on the sidewalk the slippery skin of a fruit. The first man to step on it feels his legs give way beneath him, strives frantically to keep his balance, waves his arms about, and ends by plumping to the ground with a heavy thud. At once he is beset by the "smiles" and "chuckles" of those who have witnessed his fall; and, hurt and annoyed, he scrambles to his feet, gives himself a hasty brush, and disappears as rapidly as possible.

Now, just what is this singular phenomenon of laughter, so readily induced and from such a variety of causes? What is there in the words of an actor, the antics of a clown, or the misfortune of another person, to provoke, under the circumstances mentioned, the peculiar reaction of bodily and facial contortion and inarticulate vocal utterance that, regarded dispassionately, seems almost repulsive? What useful purpose can be served by such behavior, such an obvious departure from the well-ordered ways of the reasoning life? In a word, why do we laugh?

It is a question far more easily asked than answered, as every one has discovered who has really pondered it. The answer that immediately comes to mind—"We laugh because we are amused"—not only is hopelessly inadequate, but to a large extent is incorrect. It can easily be shown that people laugh in situations where their mental state is anything but that of amusement. In one well-authenticated instance a frontiersman, on returning to his home and finding it in ruins, with his wife and children mutilated corpses, began to laugh and continued laughing until he died from the rupture of a blood-vessel. In another case, cited among the responses to a questionnaire on laughter issued by an American psychologist, President Hall, of Clark University, a number of young people from nineteen to twenty-four years of age were sitting together when the death of a friend was announced. "They looked at each other for a second and then all began to laugh, and it was some time before they could become serious."

A young woman, replying to the same questionnaire, confessed that she often laughed when hearing people speak of the death of their friends, "not because it is funny or pleases her, but because she cannot help it." Another young woman reported that on hearing of the death of a former schoolmate she felt deeply grieved, yet "laughed as heartily as she had ever done in her life," and, in spite of every effort to control herself, "had to break out into a laugh repeatedly." A third "must always laugh when she hears of a death, and has had to leave the church at a funeral because she must giggle."

Even the stimulus of a severe physical pain is known to provoke occasionally, not tears,

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but laughter. "A young man," says C. G. Lange, "whom I was treating with a powerful caustic for an ulceration of the tongue, invariably, at the moment when the pain was at its highest, was attacked by a violent outburst of laughter."

One has only to think also of the laughter caused by tickling to realize that it is not always true to say that we laugh because we are amused. And when it is true, this answer, instead of solving the problem of laughter, merely raises it in another form, since it then becomes necessary to explain why we are amused by the sayings and happenings at which we laugh. Most students of laughter have indeed felt that the important thing to do is to determine the nature of the laughable, a task itself of considerable difficulty and leading to the most diverse conclusions in the numerous explanatory formulas which have been advanced from time to time, but which, when closely scrutinized, are chiefly noteworthy for their incompleteness.

Thus, to mention only a few of the theories of the comic finding place in psychological works, it is affirmed by some authorities that the essence of the laughable is that it induces a sudden sense of superiority in the person moved to laughter. This is the "sudden glory" theory of Thomas Hobbes, and in support of it is cited more especially the well-known fact that nobody likes to be laughed at. It also finds support in the undoubted feeling of contempt which so often accompanies the laughter provoked by the buffooneries of a mountebank, the dialogue and action of a farce comedy, and the so-called "comic pictures" now to be found in such lamentable profusion in many of our newspapers. In some slight degree, too, there may be a "sudden glory" in the laughter at the awkwardness and groundless fears of a child, or at its naïve remarks, and in the laughter occasioned by mischances to other people. But certainly there is much that is laughable—notably the kindly banter between friends—that cannot reasonably be said to engender any feeling of superiority. And, more than this, we are all of us, every day of our lives, witnessing things that do arouse in us a lively feeling of superiority, but without moving us to laughter—moving us, rather, to pity and perhaps tears.

Even as amended by the psychologist Bain, the "sudden glory" theory remains inadequate. Bain defines "the occasion of the ludicrous" as "the degradation of some person or interest possessing dignity in circumstances that excite no other strong emotion." This is a decided improvement, because it clearly recognizes that the laughable must be devoid of elements awakening counteracting emotions like pity or disgust. But it is open to the criticism that laughter is frequently excited by objects and occurrences in which, unless the imagination be severely wrenched, it is impossible to assume that ideas of degradation are dominant or even operant.

When, for example, we laugh at the spectacle of a child half hidden in its grandfather's hat, what do we think of as degraded? Is it the child, the hat, or the absent grandfather? In such an instance can the idea of degradation properly be said to enter at all? So, likewise, it is difficult to conceive the presence of any idea either of degradation or superiority in the ringing laughter of a child at its puppy's gambols or at the frisking of its kitten. And how explain on such a principle the laughter at non-malicious witticisms?

Appreciating the inapplicability of the Hobbesian doctrine in any form as explanatory of all sources of laughter, other investigators have emphasized the principles of contrast and incongruity, but to scarcely more satisfactory effect. "Laughter," says Herbert Spencer, "naturally results only when consciousness is unawares transferred from great things to small—when there is what we call a descending incongruity." The manifest insufficiency of this theory is avoided in the more extensive one, to which Darwin inclines, defining the laughable as that which is queer, unusual, disagreeing with or contrary to our mental habits or the normal order of affairs. Assuredly there is almost always an element of queerness in the things at which we laugh, yet it is also certain that the queer does not always make us laugh. As Camille Mélinaud has pointed out:

"There are things contrary to the normal order that have nothing ludicrous about them; and if the view were true that queerness is the laughable element, those things that are strangest and most unusual should be the ones most certain by their very nature to excite laughter. But we do not laugh at the dancing horses, the jumping pigs, the musicians playing on bottles, of the circus, all of which are most contradictory of what we are accustomed to. If we laugh at the circus, it is at the accessory jokes and incidents in the

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detail. A conjurer's tricks, seemingly contradictory as they are of all our experiences and notions, do not make us laugh. We laugh at his jokes and his funny ways of proceeding, but we wonder at his tricks."

Mélinaud's own view, oddly enough, is about as unconvincing as any that has ever been formulated, for, while laying stress on the principle of incongruity, he insists that laughter comes only when the laugher, "by a rapid process of thought," submits the object of his mirth to a reflective analysis and arrives at the laugh-provoking conclusion that what seems absurd is really quite natural from the point of view of the person or thing laughed at. Then, and not until then, do we feel amused. On such a theory one might well wonder that children ever find it possible to laugh, and that laughter is so prevalent among uneducated persons who are not accustomed to any high degree of logical thinking.

Very different from any of the foregoing is the more recent theory of the French philosopher Henri Bergson, as presented in a special treatise on laughter, of which an excellent translation by C. Brereton and F. Rothwell has lately been published in this country. Bergson recognizes, as not every investigator has done, the essentially spontaneous character of laughter, and he insists with Darwin on postulating queerness as an indispensable element in the laughable. But, as he sees it, the queerness must be of a specific sort in order to excite laughter—must consist, in fine, in an automatic inelasticity, whether of form, action, or thought, which is in sharp contrast to the wonted mobility of life. It is our immediate recognition of this automatism and rigidity that moves us to laughter.

When, Bergson affirms, we laugh at a man who stumbles and falls in the street, our laughter is caused, not by his sudden change of attitude, but by the involuntary element in this change. "Perhaps there was a stone on the road. He should have altered his pace or avoided the obstacle. Instead of that, through lack of elasticity, through absent-mindedness and a kind of physical obstinacy—as a result, in fact, of rigidity or of momentum—the muscles continued to perform the same movement when the circumstances of the case called for something else. That is the reason of the man's fall, and also of the people's laughter." So with our laughter at the appearance and horseplay of a clown. We laugh at his painted face because we immediately recognize in it "something mechanical encrusted upon the living," and we laugh at his antics because of their automatic, machine-like character.

In fact, "We laugh every time a person gives us the impression of being a thing. We laugh at Sancho Panza tumbled into a bed-quilt and tossed into the air like a football. We laugh at Baron Munchausen turned into a cannon-ball and traveling through space." In laughter caused by puns, jests, and witticisms, the same principles of automatism and inelasticity obtain, though of course in much subtler form. Analyze closely all varieties of the comic and you always get back to the basic idea of "something mechanical in something living." Or, Bergson concludes, "The comic is that side of a person which reveals his likeness to a thing, that aspect of human events which, through its peculiar inelasticity, conveys the impression of pure mechanism, of automatism, of movement without life."

Really to appreciate both the plausibility and the shortcomings of this novel theory of the laughable one must read Professor Bergson's book. It is there elaborated so ingeniously that one finds it difficult to give instances of the comic to which it cannot in some way be applied. Even the laughter of children at the bobbing up of their jack-in-the-box, the fall of their house of cards, or the tail-chasing gyrations of their kitten, may conceivably be explained on the assumption that what the children laugh at is the automatic character of the bobbing, the falling, and the whirling. On the other hand, these very examples irresistibly suggest that the Bergsonian explanation is, after all, rather strained and far-fetched, and that, in common with its less thoroughgoing predecessors, it overlooks the elusive something fundamental to the laughable.[1] This impression is deepened when we recall the extent to which automatism, rigidity, inelasticity prevail in the affairs of men without exciting so much as a smile.

"The attitudes, gestures, and movements of the human body," says Professor Bergson, in stating one of his many subsidiary laws of the comic, "are laughable in exact proportion

[1] Since this article was written Dr. Boris Sidis, in his "Psychology of Laughter," has criticised the Bergson theory in more detail but on somewhat different grounds. Dr. Sidis's own theory, briefly, is that the laughable is not the "mechanical" but the "stupid." Or, as he himself puts it, "Allusion to human stupidity is the root of all comic."

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as that body reminds us of a mere machine." Why, then, do we not laugh when we observe the machine-like precision with which a company of soldiers marches on parade or executes the evolutions of drill? Surely one could find no better example of "something mechanical in something living." And, again, "any arrangement of acts and events is comic which gives us, in a single combination, the illusion of life and the distinct impression of a mechanical arrangement." The bobbing of the jack-in-the-box meets this formula, and we do laugh at the jack-in-the-box. But it is met equally well by the strangely lifelike movements of such devices as the automatic chess-player and the type-setting machine, yet these do not ordinarily elicit any appreciable manifestation of mirth.

It is, however, when we turn to Bergson's deductions from his theory of the comic that we are most strongly impelled to question its soundness. Emphasizing as he does the element of automatism in the laughable, he logically enough infers that the function of laughter is to serve as a social corrective. "The rigid, the ready-made, the mechanical, in contrast with the supple, the ever-changing, and the living, absent-mindedness in contrast with attention, in a word, automatism in contrast with free activity, such are the defects that laughter singles out and would fain correct." We laugh, that is to say, only at imperfections in our fellow-men, or at things which remind us of imperfections, and the reason we laugh is that, consciously or unconsciously, we wish to call attention to them by way of, in Bergson's own words, "a kind of social ragging."

Stated thus baldly, the underlying defect of such an explanation of laughter and the laughable becomes plainly apparent. What has happened is that its author has read into the phenomenon of laughing in general a meaning applicable only under special circumstances. If it were true that we laugh only at what is imperfect and therefore ugly, however attenuated in ugliness, it would be impossible to understand the well-nigh universal eagerness for laughter; an eagerness which has led mankind to reward lavishly, even extravagantly, those who make it their business to provide occasions for laughter—the writers of farces and comedies, the fun-making actors and clowns, the producers of "comic pictures." But, for that matter, the egregious falsity of this "deformity" theory, as it may fairly be called, becomes still more manifest when we endeavor to apply it to account for the laughter of childhood, the period of life when laughter is most free and exuberant, but precisely the period when it is incredible to assume that it is motivated by any corrective impulse, conscious or otherwise.

To tell the truth, the attempt to reach a wholly satisfactory solution of the problem of laughter by striving to define the characteristics of the laughable seems foredoomed to failure. For, after all, the laughable must always remain a more or less uncertain quantity, if only for the reason that, as evinced by facts of every-day observation, what makes one person laugh may not be in the least laugh-provoking to another. Yet everybody, or almost everybody, does laugh, and therefore the proper point of approach would rather seem to be through a study of the act of laughter itself and of its consequences with regard, not to the person or thing or phrase laughed at, but to the person doing the laughing.

Attacking the problem from this altogether different angle, one is soon in a position to discern several facts of real helpfulness in an explanatory way. By no means the least important is the extreme exuberance of laughter in childhood, to which reference has just been made. Once the child has begun to laugh—usually during the fourth or fifth month after birth, although occasional outbursts of a shadowy sort of laughter have been observed at an earlier age—it laughs with a truly amazing spontaneity and frequency. As every parent knows, there seems to be absolutely nothing which may not become an object of laughter to a child, and, more than this, in direct contradiction to all theories postulating a reflective element at the bottom of every laugh, as often as not the laughter of childhood is conspicuously devoid of such an element.

For example, to cite a few observations from the record of a lady, Miss Milicent Shinn, whose painstaking study of the infancy of her niece Ruth is among the most stimulating of contributions to the modern science of child psychology, it appears that towards the end of the fifth month this little girl "habitually laughed with glee when any one smiled or spoke to her." And when, two months later, she was taken into the open and allowed to roll about on a quilt, "the wooing of the passing freshness, the play of sun and shadow, the large stir of life in mov-

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ing and sounding things, all this possessed her and made her 'laugh and ejaculate with pleasure.'" So, too, like almost every child of her age, little Ruth would be moved to hilarious mirth by being given a ride on somebody's foot, or tossed and jumped about in one's arms. Laughter also followed the successful accomplishment of any intellectual or muscular feat, such as pointing out pictures she had been asked to identify, climbing stairs, or deliberately letting herself fall "so as to come down sitting with a thud."

The same tendency to excessive, even seemingly causeless, laughter in the opening years of life has been noted by other close students of the emotions and their expression. Some have attempted, with the usual futile results, to explain it by an analysis of the things at which the child laughs. Others, more cautiously and more accurately, content themselves with describing it as a means whereby nature provides a salutary outlet for surplus nervous energy. It is undoubtedly this. Ask any child who has learned to talk—or, better, ask a grown person who has retained to a marked degree the faculty for hearty laughter—and the chances are you will be told that, while in any given instance the laugher may be far from clear as to why he has laughed, he does know that the involuntary movements of the laughter to which he yielded were preceded by peculiarly compelling sensations, variously expressed in such phrases as, "I had to laugh or burst," "I had to do something to relieve the strain," "I felt bubbling over," "I felt a quiver, a thrill, a creepy feeling passing from my stomach to my mouth."

That is to say, the evidence from the abounding laughter of childhood—pre-eminently a period of rapid physical growth and of the accumulation of a large store of nervous energy—as also the evidence from the laughter of unusually mirthful adults, who are, as a rule, persons of large build and of corresponding nervous force, suggests irresistibly the conception of laughter as an instinct implanted in us for the performance of an important physiological function. This view finds additional support in the familiar "giggling silliness" of the adolescent period, that strange period of unusual growth and stress, and the one in which are most likely to occur those singular attacks of untimely hilarity at funerals and on other solemn occasions, as mentioned among the responses to President Hall's questionnaire. No more than the little child or your friend the jolly man does the adolescent always know what he is laughing at. He simply knows that he is impelled to laugh by forces latent in his being and over which he has no control.

Nor is it only as a relief from neural tension that laughter benefits the one who laughs. In the studies of laughter in childhood made by such investigators as Preyer, Sully, and Miss Shinn, one finds frequent allusion to occasions when laughter is obviously a reaction from a state of mental strain, and has a specifically useful effect in easing the mind. There is reason to believe that this is actually one of its constant ends—that it is a device for lightening the burden of mentation by temporary interruption of the thought process.

As all educators are well aware, the first years of life and the adolescent period are not only the years of greatest physical growth, but the years when the severest demands are made on the mind, both by the task of acquiring knowledge and by the perturbations of adolescence. They are the years when the mind, in its immaturity, is most in need of some protective mechanism to enable it automatically and at frequent intervals to take a holiday, as it were. Such a mechanism is admirably provided in laughter, which, incidentally, as every laugher will at once appreciate, leaves behind it, when not unduly prolonged, a pleasurable feeling of exhilaration and greater mental as well as physical well-being.

We laugh, then, in infancy and adolescence, not primarily because we are "light-hearted" or "amused," but to satisfy a natural instinct of both physiological and psychological utility. We laugh less in maturity, partly because we have not, as a rule, the same necessity of getting rid of surplus nervous energy, partly because our minds have passed the tender formative stage, and partly because widening experience has developed sentiments and ideas tending to inhibit laughter. Nevertheless we do still need to a certain extent the relief which laughter brings; we feel in some degree the old hunger for it, and consequently, often at very slight provocation, we yield, and even cultivate opportunities for yielding, to the impulse which was so conspicuously dominant in the years of our youth. As with every instinct, moreover, the laughing process may, and occasionally does, become perverted, as in the laughter of cynicism and contempt, and in the abnormal

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laughter of hysteria—itself, however, the modern medical psychologist assures us, a medium of relief from some unbearable strain.

As to the things at which we commonly laugh—the "laughable" whose nature has so perplexed philosophers—all that may safely be said is that their laugh-provoking power depends not so much on any inherent "comicality" as on the circumstances under which they occur to us, and our point of view towards them as determined by our previous training and experience. Assuredly, for instance, we cannot laugh at a subtle bit of wit until we have had a certain education in the appreciation of the skillful use of language. The instincts of imitation and of sympathy, further, have a share in determining on many an occasion the functioning of the laughing instinct. Time and time again we laugh merely because we see other people laughing. Personally I am inclined to think also that much at which we laugh as adults is laughable to us only by reason of subconscious association with similar occurrences which chanced to move us to laughter in our childhood. But on this point nothing positive should be asserted pending psychological investigation which has yet to be made.

Conceding, however, that the laughable is and must always remain elusive, baffling, uncertain, there need be no uncertainty as to our view of laughter itself. To laugh—to laugh spontaneously and heartily—is under nearly every circumstance a good thing both for the body and for the mind. Like sleep, it refreshes; like food, it strengthens. Humanity in truth would be the poorer—and the shorter-lived—were it ever to lose this splendid heritage of the power to laugh.

THE SPECTATOR

A SALT schooner was anchored in the harbor, a black bulk, red at the water line, its tall framework of masts and rigging outlined against the sky, a magic name of Sicily upon its prow. The Spectator had noted it as the creaking trolley swept around the curve of the shore, where the codfish under their white canopies lay drying in the sun—evident to the nostrils before they became visible to the eye. Even in that town of wharves, fish sheds, ship's chandlers, and sailing craft of all degrees, where one glimpses masts at the end of every street, the great vessel casting its irregular green reflection in strange waters added a note of romance, the irresistible romance of the traffic of the seas. The Spectator intended to visit the salt schooner at once, but somehow the days slipped by and he had not gone. Then one day a young lady from the hotel, fresh from the excursion, gave his desire fresh impulse. She said:

"It is sort of dark inside, with funny steep stairs, and there is a little image of the Madonna, with a light always burning before it, and the *mandante* has lovely manners and offers you some funny, nice wine, and the sailors wear earrings."

The Spectator decided to go at once; so late in the afternoon he went to the dock of a certain "captain," who combined with other maritime activities the letting of boats. The captain's bent form and bushy whiskers were, however, nowhere in sight. Instead he found a lean young man examining the machinery of a motor boat with an air, if not of leisure, at least of non-necessitous employment. The Spectator, addressing himself to the young man, discovered that the captain was "away." At that disappointing discovery he confided his purpose to the lean young man, insinuating that perhaps he might ferry him the short distance to the salt schooner. This apparently simple proposition brought him unexpectedly against the obstacle of the New England Conscience.

"No, it wouldn't be right for me to take you," the lean young man told him in a tone of admonishment. "You see, he *pays* for the privilege of ferryin' folks out from this dock, and it wouldn't be fair for me to take his job." The Spectator argued that if the captain wasn't there to take advantage of his privilege, the lean young man would not, strictly speaking, be taking away his job. But the young man only shook his head with increased severity, repeating that he couldn't do it, that "it wouldn't be right." The Spectator glanced at the salt schooner, softly and seductively drifting with the tide, and made

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another attempt to undermine the moral nature of this descendant of the Puritans. He haggled, he pleaded, he advanced what he felt to be sophistical arguments, in vain. They all came back to him as from a blank wall. He discovered in his next remark that the conscientious young man was the captain's nephew. "Then of *course* it will be all right for you to take me," the Spectator assumed with an artificial effect of cheeriness; but the young man failed to respond in the same spirit. "Is there no other way I can get out to it?" the Spectator then enterprisingly inquired, only to receive further discouragement. "None as I know of. He *pays* for the privilege." At that the Spectator remarked that he would assume full responsibility for the grave violation of professional etiquette that he had proposed. Then, indeed, he struck a spark from Plymouth Rock, for, with the fire of all the Pilgrim Fathers in his blue eye, the youth exclaimed, "Ah, but you can't take *my* responsibility!"

Cowed by this superb exhibition of moral force, the Spectator inquired where the captain lived, thinking he might find information or authority at headquarters. He had never seen the captain anywhere but inside of a boat or brooding over one, and did not readily associate him with the idea of a house. The nephew courteously directed him, and, after climbing bluffs and descending hills and testing irregular, illogical streets, the Spectator found the captain's house, which was new but not beautiful. It was some time before he was able to get any response either to knocks or pressings of the new electric bell, but at last a fair-haired woman appeared at the window. She looked pleasant and tried hard to open the window, but was not successful, so she and the Spectator were obliged to shriek at each other through the glass.

Yes, the captain lived there, she informed him in a tone shrill yet muffled, but he was not at home. With some difficulty the Spectator gathered that the captain was "to a moving picture show at Gloucester." When would he be back? "Not till half-past six," came weakly through the glass for all the apparent expenditure of effort on the part of the blonde young woman.

"I want to go over to see the salt schooner," the Spectator explained through the glittering wall, in the manner of one addressing the deaf. "The captain's nephew is down at the dock, but he won't take me because he thinks it would be interfering with the captain's rights." The Spectator was conscious of slipping into the tone of grievance. "That must be Jim ——" The Spectator lost the nephew's last name. "He's a *splendid* young fellow." The testimonial came warmly through the transparent barrier.

The Spectator agreed that the young man seemed to be all that, then referred the moral issue to his admirer. "Don't *you* think it would be all right for him to take me?"

The young woman behind the glass, evidently also a victim to the local conscience, reflected gravely before passing judgment. "I should *think* so—yes; seeing that the captain, as you say, ain't there," she at length decided. So the Spectator returned to the splendid fellow, whom he found still pacing the wharf. Apprehending that by this time he had got upon the young man's sensitive conscience, and backed by the moral support of the young woman behind the glass, the Spectator now proceeded to use his advantage shamelessly. He told of the captain's presence at the moving picture show in Gloucester and dwelt upon the certainty of his late return; to which the young man responded irrelevantly that the moving pictures in Gloucester could not be beat anywhere. The Spectator, not to be turned aside by the abstract, dwelt upon his desire to see the schooner and the sadness of his vanishing hopes. "To-morrow," he said, "she may be gone." The young man agreed that there was of course nothing permanent in the nature of schooners, and the Spectator noted with exultation that his case had at length set up a conflicting moral claim. He recounted the tale of the young woman behind the glass and how *she* thought it would be all right for the nephew to utilize the captain's privilege in his absence. The young man's reply, if indirect, seemed more human. "Was she young or old?" The Spectator, without equivocal exercise of chivalry, was able to state that she was young. "Did she have black hair?" The Spectator saw that he had the young man's full attention now. "No, fair hair," the Spectator recorded, and observed that his reply *seemed* satisfactory. He followed up his advantage, and was rewarded by seeing the young man move in the direction of the motor boat, in which presently, after some explosive and

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threatening sounds at starting, he found himself scudding swiftly in the direction of the schooner.

As they approached the rope ladder that ran down the side of the schooner a row of bronze faces appeared over the edge. Each head was adorned with a soft pointed, red cap ending in a tassel. The Spectator addressed himself to the row of heads in serviceable if limited Italian, only to discover that the captain was on the *terra*, that he would not return till *sette ora*—perhaps he, too, was at "the movies," the Spectator reflected, only he would call it the "ciny." In the captain's absence, it seemed, no one was allowed on board. As the Spectator parleyed, in vain, the number of dark faces at the schooner's rim increased, and they rapidly and all talked at once about the Spectator and his helmsman, with much display of white teeth. Suddenly a cry of "*Mangiare!*" arose, causing them to disappear as one man in the direction of a strong smell of garlic, and there seemed nothing to do but to face homeward. The Spectator had seen the earrings—whatever else the hold of the great vessel contained of picturesqueness or romance must remain a mystery.

"The Eyetalians," remarked the young man, breaking the silence, "are a very pleasant people. Folks are sometimes unjust to them." So it was evident that the descendant of the Puritans mingled charity with his austerity.

As he disembarked the Spectator asked the young man how much he owed him. The answer was, "Nothing." The Spectator protested, but again the young man's moral nature was proof. "I have taken your time and your gasoline," the Spectator urged, but the young man stated with relentless precision that just now his time was not worth much. "Besides," he added, "I don't think it would be just *right* for me to take anything." So he ended, strong to the last.

On the way home the Spectator met the captain clad in his land clothes—although the dark blue cloth retained a nautical suggestion. News of the expedition had already reached the captain, who, however—perhaps because of many journeyings into far and godless countries—seemed to have a more blunted moral sense than his nephew, for he refused to recognize a moral issue in the situation. "I could take you again myself to-morrow," he remarked, with his restful air of leisure, "only I'm afraid she's goin' out soon. You never can tell with them Eyetalians. They go when they get ready. No, nothing much to see. Rigged different to ours, of course. Them big ones is pretty much all alike inside. They don't come so much as they did. They bring salt from the Eyetalian mines for the codfish, you know. It comes cheaper 'an ours."

"And take something back, I suppose?" the Spectator suggested, to which the captain replied, loosely, "Oh, yes; dried fish and things."

That evening, as the Spectator sat watching the sunset behind the towers of the little town and looked upon the ships anchored in a temporary sea of glory, he saw the Sicilian sailors begin some rhythmic pulling of the ropes, chanting, as they did so, a sad, wild minor song. The next morning, when he looked out of his window, the salt schooner was gone. And so—"he never got to Carcassonne."

"Yes, they was drawing up anchor then," the captain explained later. "They always do it to that tune." The captain had the characteristic view-point of the old salt who recounts alien ways with surprised comment. That evening a modern yacht was anchored in the schooner's mooring, her clean-cut hour bells taking their place in the general irregular harmony of Gloucester bells.

Some day the salt schooners will not come any more from Trapani to Gloucester Harbor, nor will the sometimes too-pungent salt fish lie drying in the sun, for in this progressive land of ours the small and intimate former things so dear to some of us seem doomed to pass away. Yet still for a little while the picturesque small traffic of our Eastern coast will go on—that interchange of commodities that began in the days of the East India trade. For a time still Gloucester "captains" will speak of Peking as casually as of Newton Center, and tell strange tales of alien lands in their homely speech. Kindly, simple folk, survivors of a passing epoch, few of them now wring their hard living from the reluctant sea. When they are gone those who have known them will mourn their loss. May something as genuine and courageous come after them!

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THE NEW BOOKS

A PRISONER IN FAIRYLAND

It is hard to translate into every-day speech the fantasy and symbolism of the imaginative tale called "A Prisoner in Fairyland" (Macmillan). It should be allowed to carry its message in its own way to the heart of every reader tuned to receive it; and those who do receive it should feel in duty bound to pass its message of sympathy and helpful kindness on to others. Children are the medium through which this saving spark of sympathy is to be transmitted to a hard, care-weary world. In fact, the story turns on the endeavor of a father of a growing family to write a great Children's Play—a play of sympathy, sweet endeavor, love, and sacrifice for others that is to bring the world back to fairyland; that is, to a sense of peace and joy in life, and also some gold into the family purse. But he gets "wumbled," as his children say, when he tries to put his thoughts into a "read-aloud story." The central figure of the play, too, eludes him; should it be Man or Woman? Then comes "Cousinenry" to the little mountain village, cousin to the father and a childhood playmate. In spite of material success, he has kept one wire in touch with fairyland through the years. The children instantly mark him as one of their own kind. He quietly helps with his gold in the village and in his cousin's household, but, above all, through his atmosphere of helpful sympathy and understanding, he "unwumbles" his writer-cousin's thoughts so that details fall into their proper places as parts of a perfect whole; a vision of the guiding figure of his play flashes on the writer's consciousness; it is to be a woman—a Mother! Not an ordinary, baby-tending, sock-mending mother who begins by loving herself, next a man, then her children and her children's children, and then stops; but a childless Mother with a million children, all unborn, a woman charged to the brim with the power of loving to which ordinary expression has been denied; and hence a Universal Mother with sympathy for all, the symbol of a great cause, a race, a nation, the world. So at the end the Great Play comes triumphantly into port, all characters working in perfect harmony.

The book breathes a kindly human spirit and gentle philosophy, and there is a slight plot, simply told, that fastens the whole thing to earth. One wishes everybody to read this book, but one hesitates to dissect or explain it too much, from a vague fear of losing one's own hold on the half-real creations and perhaps forfeiting one's seat in the Starlight Express which is waiting every night for those who will take it, when

> "... The sun,
> Closing his benediction,
> Sinks, and the darkening air
> Thrills with a sense of the triumphing night—
> Night with her train of stars
> And her great gift of sleep."

Present-Day Theology. By Washington Gladden. McClelland & Co., Columbus, Ohio. $1.

The new theology is new no longer, but it is very vaguely understood or not understood at all by thousands of laymen and, we are afraid, by hundreds of ministers, and the latter fail to preach any theology because they do not know what theology to preach. To all those who are dissatisfied with the old scheme of religious philosophy, and who are also not satisfied to be without any, this volume by Dr. Gladden can be cordially recommended. The fact that the lectures of which the volume is composed were heard by audiences which nearly filled the church auditorium, though given on week-day evenings, is more than "an indication that people are not averse to theological discussion;" it is a satisfying evidence that people are very desirous of a rational, intelligible, and spiritually inspiring interpretation of religious truth to take the place of that legalistic form of theology which the people have so largely outgrown.

Hebrew Anthology (A). By George Alexander Kohut. In 2 vols. S. Bacharach, Cincinnati. $7.50.

This brief title veils the range and richness of these volumes. Their chosen field has been entered before, but has never been so largely cultivated. A distinguished British hymnologist, the Rev. W. Garrett Horder, gathered treasures from it into the first volume of his "Poet's Bible" nearly thirty years ago. Never till now has so much of it both in range and variety been brought together as in these eight hundred poetical selections from Christian writers, British and American, ancient and modern. Here is Cædmon's Anglo-Saxon epic from the seventh century, "The Fall of Man." Here from the ninth century is the Anglo-Saxon poetical romance "Judith," attributed by its versifier, Professor A. S. Cook, to Swithin, Bishop of

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Winchester. Yet a thousand pages more, says the editor, besides the thousand and a third in these volumes, would be required to show in full the influence of Hebrew thought upon English poetry and drama. Nor is it doubted by any one conversant with our colonial history that the Hebrew spirit has left its indelible stamp upon American principles and institutions. These selections, of course, are of unequal literary merit, yet none is unworthy of a place for its representative value. Here, for instance, are specimens of the Bay Psalm Book of Massachusetts in 1640, with a hundred and fifty others from the ancient hymnal of the Jewish Church, now the one ecumenical liturgy. These selections have more than a literary value. They often cast fresh light on the meaning of the Scripture from which they spring. Such a work as this can hardly fail to promote a larger and warmer sympathy with "the People of the Book." That it is a highly valuable work of reference for both literary and religious use is evident. Dr. Kohut, himself a poet, has admirably accomplished his laborious task, and made all English-speaking nations, as well as his own Israel, his debtors.

History of the Metropolitan Museum of Art (A). By Winifred E. Howe. Gilliss Press, New York.

Heavy to the hand is Miss Howe's "History of the Metropolitan Museum," but delightful to the eye are the illustrations in the book, and certainly interesting to the mind is the text. On the very first page we come across a statement with which most people, we believe, are unfamiliar. It informs us that to Tammany we owe the earliest attempt at metropolitan popular education such as would be given by a great public picture gallery. John Pintard was the first Sagamore of Tammany. He was a man of public spirit. But he was particularly a pioneer in the effort to gather into a museum "everything relating to the history of America, likewise every American production of nature or art." Thus, as far back as 1791 there was started the Tammany (or American) Museum, so catholic in its tastes as to state that "everything and from whatever clime will be acceptable." The Museum found its home in the old City Hall in Wall Street. But there was opposition from the city authorities, and hence, instead of a great municipal undertaking coming quickly to life, there came gradually to life instead several societies—the American Academy of Fine Arts, the New York Historical Society, the National Academy of Design, the Apollo Association, the American Art Union, the New York Gallery of the Fine Arts, and the Cooper Union. Not until 1870 did the Metropolitan Museum, as we know it, arise. Its first officers were John Taylor Johnston, President, with William Cullen Bryant and John A. Dix as Vice-Presidents. The year following a legislative grant authorized the issue of city funds for the erection of a building on a site in Central Park (would that the Park might have been kept clear of all buildings!), also given by the Government, and thus the Museum ceased to be a matter of purely private enterprise. The present edifice was opened to the public by the President of the United States, Mr. Hayes, in 1880. As is fitting, the author renders a tribute to the late John Pierpont Morgan, President of the Museum, whose power of action and wide experience of men and affairs, no less than his financial aid, were of vital value in the Museum's development.

Development and Purpose. By Leonard Trelawney Hobhouse. The Macmillan Company, New York. $4.

A special interest for readers philosophically inclined attaches to this acutely and elaborately reasoned work. It is the outcome of many years' study, in which the author has exchanged his earlier theory of mechanical causation as the ultimate category of science for a theistic and teleological conception of reality as a whole. He finds "a spiritual element" integral in the structure and movement of reality, and the moving force in ethical development. Evolution is a process in which a purpose is slowly working itself out under limiting conditions, which it progressively brings under control. This purpose is the purpose of a Central Mind, and this must be viewed as "a conditioned mind." Professor Hobhouse does not make account of the difficulty this idea is likely to encounter among theologians, or its apparent limitation put upon God. Edward Caird met it fairly in his masterly exposition of the "Idea of the Infinite" as signifying not mere incapableness of all limitation, but rather of all but self-imposed limitation. For the reality of such limitation—the "conditioned mind"—it is enough to refer to the Biblical truth of the immanence of God in nature and in man. Professor Hobhouse's conception of rationality as "a principle of harmony pervading experience," and as linking up the historical account of the evolution of mind with the philosophical theory of the ultimate basis and meaning of evolution, is especially instructive.

Monarchical Socialism in Germany. By Elmer Roberts. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $1.25.

Mr. Roberts's discussion of monarchical Socialism in Germany is a timely volume, whether one approaches it from the side of Socialism pure and simple, or from the side of a strong central government seemingly opposed to any kind of Socialism, as represented by the consistent disciples of Karl Marx. Particularly in the chapter on the present Emperor do we see the clash of old and new conditions, as represented by that picturesque monarch, who, paradoxically enough, often symbolizes both. Mr. Roberts's forecast of the future is interesting, of course.

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But most observers make their own forecasts. The book will, therefore, we believe, be of greatest use as a book of reference, if one wishes to obtain information concerning the railways, for instance, or the labor exchanges, the employment insurance plan, or the problems of trusts or taxation in Germany. The book would have been possibly of greater value to the man in the street had the author's style been somewhat more vivacious. There are in Germany two schools of Socialism, as we see from these pages—the monarchical and the republican; the first favors the collective ownership of mines, railways, lands, forests, and other instruments of production. The mastery of material development in Germany is, as Mr. Roberts says, in monarchical Socialism as against republican revolutionary Socialism—"red Socialism" as it is called. Despite this, "red" or, as it is also called, "doctrinaire Socialism" is comprehensive enough to give adequate mental footing to its followers, as may be seen by the fact that the Socialists operate about two hundred central circulating libraries and nearly four hundred branch libraries. The strength of the monarchical Socialism, concludes Mr. Roberts, comes from the fact that German prosperity, while it shows the rich to be getting richer, does not show the poor to be getting poorer.

Illustrated Flora of the Northern States in Canada. By Nathaniel L. Britton and Addison Brown. Three Volumes. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $13.50.

This is the second edition of what is recognized as the only complete work on its subject ever published in America. The revision for this edition has been extended and is far from perfunctory; some three hundred pages have been added, and the number of species illustrated has been increased by about five hundred. We need not point out that such a manual is not only of service, but is practically indispensable to botanical students. Its scope and resulting size and cost make it out of the reach of many young students, but it certainly should be in every public library, and most particularly in every school or college library in which botany is taught.

Germany and Its Evolution in Modern Times. By Henri Lichtenberger. Henry Holt & Co., New York. $2.50.

M. Henri Lichtenberger is the *Maître des Conférences* at the Paris Sorbonne. He has produced a study of Germany which ought to contribute materially to the philosophical interpretation of history. An English translation of the book has now appeared. The author's evident aim has been to present a background of ideas and spiritual aspirations from which the events in German history stand out, and from which they derive their outline and color. These events may be political or social or religious, and hence the book should interest the student of politics or society or religion. It should also interest the political economist, for the economic data given by M. Lichtenberger are ample. He carefully traces the gradual transformation of Germany during the nineteenth century, and shows how a patriarchal, feudal country can become an individualistic, capitalistic country. His account of the political events leading up to the reconstruction of the Empire seems to us particularly noteworthy.

Empires of the Far East. By Lancelot Lawton. In 2 vols. Small, Maynard & Co., Boston. $7.50.

Mr. Lawton's two volumes are of interest and helpfulness, first of all, if we consult them with regard to the history of Japan or the history of China. But they are of special interest when we consult them with regard to the present relations between Japan and China. Much is being said nowadays about the desire of Japan to be the leader of all Asia, and much has been said about China's desire to be recognized as a republic by Japan. The reasons which lead these countries to these wishes are well set forth by Mr. Lawton. Certainly the two nations have everything to gain by an agreement with each other, and a particular reason for such agreement is the fact that they must inevitably be allies against a common foe—Russia. The recent action of Russia in Mongolia is an impressive indication that there can be no end to such aggression, either in Mongolia or Manchuria, unless China and Japan form a sufficiently united force to check it. Hence, this amalgamation should be a corner-stone in Far Eastern policy. At present, it is true, there is a friendly understanding between Russia and Japan. Both want Manchuria. But the needs of Russia and Japan are very different. We do not always realize that Japan's expansion is caused by hundreds of thousands of new mouths to feed every year whereas Russia's is caused by her desire to command the territory between her present boundaries and some ice-free port on the Pacific. It will be curious to see whether these two desires may not ultimately be satisfied—Japan's by the addition of necessary territory, and Russia's by some possible commercial, if not political, access to a port on the Pacific coast. At all events, for the present, Japan has everything to gain by an agreement with China, and apparently everything to lose by antagonizing China. This conviction, which must be felt in many influential quarters, may have a decisive influence in the recognition by Japan of the new Chinese republic. However this may be, the present volumes are valuable to any one who would gain a comprehensive survey. While some of the text might have been condensed with profit to "the man in the street," the student of Far Eastern policies will hardly feel that Mr. Lawton has been too elaborate in his statements.

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BY THE WAY

In a recent issue The Outlook referred to Ambassador Page's July Fourth speech in London as an excellent condensed interpretation of the new spirit which is showing itself in American industry and finance. Mr. Theodore H. Price, the well-known cotton expert of the Wall Street district, in his excellent weekly "Cotton and Finance," defines this spirit in the following epigram, which would make a good motto to hang on the wall of the counting-room, bank, or factory: "More and more are men's minds turning to the hope of gain through their own efficiency rather than through the deficiencies of others."

The General Board of the Navy has calculated that the largest ship that could be built for transit through the Panama Canal would cost $20,000,000 and would be of these dimensions: Length 750 feet, beam 100 feet, draught 28 feet 6 inches, displacement 38,000 tons, speed 23 knots. The largest battle-ship in our navy at present is 554 feet long, with a tonnage of 26,000.

Taking warning by the fall of the old Campanile at Venice, the authorities at Pisa are, it is reported, planning to strengthen the famous Leaning Tower of their city, so that it may not sag further out of the perpendicular. Its condition now is said to be dangerous.

A plan has been proposed to tear down the present Post-Office building in New York City, which is declared to be antiquated and unsuitable, and to erect a modern edifice on the site of the old Astor House. This plan has the indorsement of the Merchants' Association.

The famous Calumet and Hecla copper mines of Michigan have recently been prominent in the newspapers as the scene of a labor strike. In the various mines affected by the strike there were employed about 18,000 men, nearly all of whom "went out."

An old house pulled down in Paris not long ago was the home of Corvisart, surgeon to Napoleon. Corvisart's chief claim to remembrance, perhaps, is his witty and daring reply to the Emperor, when Napoleon asked him at a New Year's levee, "And how many people do you expect to kill this year, *cher maître?*" "That," replied Corvisart, "was the very question which I was about to ask of your Majesty."

New Yorkers to the number of 634,316,516 rode on the cars of the Interborough Rapid Transit Company during the last fiscal year—a gain of more than 27,000,000.

"We believed it once, and earnestly hoped there might be something in it," says a newspaper satirist, apropos of the young man who says he is "never going to marry." "Then at least we should have to give no wedding present. Then, also, we should not have to meet a very ordinary girl and be assured that she was a divine creature.—You lose sight of him for a week or two, and when you see him next he is engaged!—Those who never marry are those also who don't talk about never marrying."

When a King and Queen want to have a really good time, they go about incognito, just like "folks." Despatches tell how King Alfonso and Queen Victoria of Spain have been visiting Paris on their way to the Cowes regatta, going shopping afternoons and to the theater in the evening. Even the newspapers were mystified as to the whereabouts of the royal couple while they were enjoying their freedom from the fatigues of high life.

Mount Desert, Maine, recently reaffirmed its resolution that no automobiles shall be allowed within the corporate limits. Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., one of the advocates of this measure, said that he took his family to Mount Desert to get away from automobiles.

Does this opposition to the use of the motor car on the part of a wealthy man indicate that eventually the present fashion will change, and that the horse may come back? Possibly; though it will doubtless be a long time before the automobile becomes so common that "society" will want its stylish roadsters back again.

One of the largest inter-State real estate transactions that ever took place was that by which recently the Henry Phipps estate acquired a large block of land on Fifth Avenue and Forty-seventh Street, New York City, in exchange for property in Pittsburgh, Allegheny, and Perryville, Pennsylvania. The amount involved was about $6,500,000.

Some South American countries are said to be a little sensitive as to the designs of the United States, but this apparently does not apply to Argentina. Buenos Aires recently honored us by erecting a statue to General Washington, and on July 4 displayed the Stars and Stripes. Thank you!

Another pleasant attention from a South American was the presentation by Dr. Lauro Muller, the Brazilian special ambassador, of gifts to members of the New York City traffic squad who had escorted him through the city during his visit. Dr. Muller is said to have remarked that the New York police formed the finest body of men he had seen in his extensive travels. That is a compliment for the force to live up to.

So much depends on the point of view! Mr. E. Torday, in his recently published book "Camp and Tramp in African Wilds," says that he asked the chief of a Congo tribe what his wife's name was; the chief replied that only

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a husband was permitted to use his wife's name, and that summary punishment was meted out to any one who infringed this rule. On the author's asking if this applied to Europeans, the chief replied, "Oh no! you see, Europeans have no manners!"

What did Shakespeare mean when he wrote, in "As You Like It,"

> "The toad, ugly and venomous,
> Wears yet a precious jewel in his head"?

Sir Ray Lankester, in "Science from an Easy Chair," says that Shakespeare probably shared the current belief of his time in a "toad-stone" carried in the toad's head. The toad-stone, he says, is really the tooth of a fossil fish, Lepidotus; this is of the color of a toad, and the credulity of early observers led them to believe that it was produced by the toad.

Professor Pierre Boutroux, the French mathematician, has, it is announced, accepted the Professorship of Mathematics at Princeton University. Professor Boutroux is a son of Émile Boutroux, the philosopher, and a cousin of M. Poincaré, President of the French Republic.

Some one has said that we can bear with a certain degree of equanimity the misfortunes of our dearest friends; the idea is aptly illustrated by the following from "Tid-Bits:" Minister (to elderly female crofter): "I'm sorry to hear your potatoes are very bad this year, Janet." "'Deed they are, sir; but I've reason to be thankfu' to Providence that other folks are as badly off as mysel'."

The "Crop Reporter," a monthly publication of the Department of Agriculture, is, it is announced, to be discontinued, and instead a weekly printed letter is to be sent to the 2,300 county and the 35,000 township correspondents of the Department. Secretary Houston thinks that the farmers require news as to crop conditions oftener than once a month. Another Government Secretary, it will be remembered, has decided that it will be better for his readers to hear from him but once a month instead of at weekly intervals.

An American editor, says the London "Graphic," who was sent to England to buy fiction, finds little to suit his purpose, because, he asserts, in English novels "women inevitably get the worst of it," and "he repeats Mr. Price Collier's dictum that 'England is a man's country.'" And yet England may be ruled by a Queen, and many readers would say that her greatest living novelist is a woman.

The egg of the Patagonian ostrich, or rhea, according to Professor Loomis, of Amherst, in his new book "Hunting Extinct Animals in Patagonia," is rich in flavor and does not differ materially in taste from the familiar hen's egg. With one of these eggs, he says, to which some macaroni and a pound of raisins were added, "Billy," the cook, "made a gallon of what we called 'powerful feed.' It certainly was the best meal we had on the trip."

The Boer Colony in Patagonia, Professor Loomis tells us, is gradually breaking up and drifting back to the old home in the Transvaal. This transition has been hastened by the fact that the English Government has paid indemnities for the buildings and stock destroyed in the war. "Finally," says Professor Loomis, "the Boers understood the English and respected their fair dealing," while they were dissatisfied with their relations with the Government in their new home.

The Secretary of Commerce intends to lease twelve islands on the coast of Alaska to persons who wish to engage in the business of rearing foxes. The profits of this business may be inferred from the fact that the Government realized from the sale of blue fox pelts from its Pribilof Island herd last year over $20,000, of which one lot of skins brought $131 per skin.

The District Attorney's office in New York City seems to have been unusually efficient during the last year. Within that period there have been more convictions for murder in the first degree than in any other year in the history of the county.

"Rokeby" would in these days hardly be picked by a publisher as a "best seller," but Sir Walter Scott is said to have been paid $15,000 for that poem. The London "Chronicle," in commenting on this fact, says that the highest price ever paid for a short poem was received by James Smith, of "Rejected Addresses" fame, for these lines addressed to Richard Strachan, who upon receiving them added a codicil to his will leaving the author £3,000:

> "Your lower limbs seemed far from stout
> When last I saw you walk.
> The cause I presently found out
> When you began to talk.
> The power that props the body's strength,
> In due proportion spread,
> In you mounts upward, and the strength
> All settles in the head."

The temptations of girls employed in retail stores in the great cities have been much dilated upon; but in a symposium in the New York "Evening Mail" on "How I Get Along with the Men in Our Office" one girl writes: "Men have more respect for women in retail stores than they do in offices. The men with whom we girls work (I sell candy) respect us in every way, our feelings and our comforts. They are perfect gentlemen. I do not mean the customers only, but the men clerks and floorwalkers."

Speaking of queer names, a recent New York lawsuit was between Messrs. Fox and Oxx. Almost one could have forgiven the printer if a typographical error had harmonized the two gentlemen of zoölogical forebears and litigious tendencies by making them appear as Oxx and Foxx.

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